

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

Illustrated

REVIEW OF REVIEWS

September 1897

Edited by ALBERT SHAW

The Nicaragua Canal Commission :

PROF. LEWIS M. HAUPT. By Henry W. Lanier.
 REAR ADMIRAL JOHN G. WALKER. By James Barnes.
 CAPT. OBERLIN M. CARTER, of the U. S. Engineer Corps.

President Andrews and Brown University.

Caucus Reform. By Ralph M. Easley.

Canovas : Spain's Foremost Statesman.

By ex-Minister J. M. Curry.

PROGRESS OF THE WORLD :

Dr. Andrews and Free Speech,
 Wheat, Silver, and Prices,
 The Effect of Plentiful Gold,
 Canada and the Klondyke,
 The Working of the New Tariff,
 The Tax-Assessment Troubles,
 Canovas and the Risk of Modern
 Rulers,
 England in the East,
 Work of the Last English Parliament,
 The International Duel,
 The King of Siam on his Travels,
 Mr. McKinley as a Reformer,

are about half of the timely topics discussed
 by the editor this month.

NAMING THE INDIANS.

By Simon Pokagon.

The Gold Discoveries,
 The Future of Naval Warfare,
 Are the Rich Growing Richer and
 the Poor Poorer?
 Speaker Reed on the New Tariff,
 Japan's Currency System,
 Is the French Republic a Failure?
 Mr. Roosevelt on his Police Reforms,
 Col. Waring on his Street Cleaning,
 When Were the Gospels Written?
 The Return of the Jews to Palestine,
 Ruskin Among Workingmen,
 A Study of Martin Luther,

and a score more of important subjects
 among the "Leading Articles."

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EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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THE CROWN PRINCE.

PRINCE CHAKRAPAT.

THE KING OF SIAM AND HIS SONS. (*See page 275.*)

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VOL. XVI.

NEW YORK, SEPTEMBER, 1897.

No. 3.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*A Question of
Free Speech.*

Brown University—the chief educational center of the historic community that Roger Williams founded on the basis of an honest freedom of belief and utterance—has this summer given the country occasion for a searching discussion that will doubtless have useful results. Dr. E. Benjamin Andrews became president of Brown some eight years ago. He was a graduate of the institution, and after honorable and successful work in other important colleges, he became a professor at Brown. In 1888 he was induced to take the chair of political economy at Cornell University, where his work was remarkably acceptable and his popularity was unbounded. The next year, the presidency at Brown becoming vacant, the trustees selected Dr. Andrews as of all men the one best adapted to the position. His incumbency has been extremely advantageous to the institution. He has brought into its faculty men whose work has won national and even world-wide reputation, he has vastly increased the number of students, and in every way possible he has enlarged and enriched old Brown's educational appliances, so that the young men of Rhode Island and vicinity now possess in their home college a vastly better opportunity for instruction than ever before. In all his work for the university, President Andrews has been faithful to the best educational ideals; and the result has been a most fortunate atmosphere of harmony and good-will. When Dr. Andrews was selected for the post he has filled so well, it was perfectly understood that the board of trustees reposed in him that full confidence that the American college president has always been supposed to enjoy. But now they have asked him to wear a muzzle; and his case involves principles that so deeply concern all other college presidents and professors that it has disturbed unwontedly their vacation repose.

*The College
President as
the Man
at the Helm.*

In no other country, perhaps, can there be found a group of men who hold positions in educational work and in society at large that are precisely analogous to those held by American college presidents. Although they are selected in the first instance by the boards of trustees, they at once become the authoritative heads of their respective institutions, and are by no means supposed to be the agents or servitors of the trustees, or to take their instructions from those bodies. Least of all has it ever been supposed that it was a part of the business of boards of trustees to tell the college presidents what opinions they ought to hold upon public questions, or precisely what their utterances ought to be. The trustees of an educational institution are undoubtedly justified in considering from time to time the question whether or not a president's administration is advantageous or disadvantageous; and if they are convinced that it is bad and growing worse, it may then become their duty to ask him to resign. But he is not a person to be held in tutelage. The president of a college is selected as a man who is to be placed at the helm and to be trusted—especially when the sailing is not altogether smooth. But the trustees of Brown University would seem to be a timorous, half-hearted folk, for they have lacked the calmness, patience, and reserve strength to trust the man at the helm when the first little storm has come up. Instead of going about their ordinary affairs, waiting tolerantly and letting the man at the helm alone, as common sense would have dictated, they have crowded around him, joggled his elbows, and told him they loved him just as much as ever, but were dreadfully, oh, so dreadfully, afraid he might steer wrong and bring damage to the vessel. They assured him they desired him to remain at the helm, merely asking that he should distrust his own knowledge and judgment and

endeavor to rely upon theirs, which in turn would quite surely reflect the environment of public opinion. They seemed to be surprised when the man at the helm promptly informed them that self-respecting men did not steer under such limitations, and that he must therefore step aside. The trustees will meet at Providence on September 1 to act upon his resignation.



DR. E. BENJAMIN ANDREWS.

*Dr. Andrews
and His
Opinions.*

President Andrews is a man whose interest in current questions is keen and intelligent. He is well versed in economics and has given very special attention to the money question. His position as a student of monetary science was sufficiently attested by his appointment in 1892 by President Harrison as one of the American delegates to the International Monetary Conference. For years Dr. Andrews has been well known to be a bimetallist. Last year, however, before the campaign opened, he went abroad for a well-earned vacation, and has only very recently returned after an absence of a year or more. President Andrews has made contributions to this REVIEW, and our readers have been well aware of his belief in the feasibility of the rehabilitation of silver by the great commercial nations of the world as a full money metal. He is certainly not eccentric in holding this opinion, inasmuch as it is the view that has been repeatedly taken with absolute unanimity alike by both great American parties. We have kept a somewhat constant notice of President Andrews' utterances, and if he has ever on any occasion stepped forth to advocate the free and

unlimited coinage of silver by the United States alone at the ratio of 16 to 1, we have never heard of it. He is reported to have said to somebody in private that he had become inclined personally to the opinion that American free coinage might of itself so affect the market for silver as to keep gold and silver at a parity. Most men who have studied the question as carefully as Dr. Andrews has, certainly think otherwise. But, happily, such men are all modest enough to understand that their opinions are not infallible, and they respect the sincerity and learning of a man like Dr. Andrews, who may not agree with them. It must be remembered that Dr. Andrews did not participate in the great political campaign of last year, and further that he has not been propagating any so-called monetary heresies among the students of Brown University. The professors at Brown who teach political, economic, and social science are none of them free-silver men; but President Andrews has confidence in them as honest thinkers and good teachers. They in turn have the fullest confidence in him, and their views are well set forth in the open letter addressed by them to the trustees, which we publish in full in another part of this issue.

*The Blundering
Trustees.*

What Dr. Andrews' views on the silver question may or may not be is, after all, a wholly irrelevant matter. The question is whether a board of trustees acts wisely in trying to supervise the religious, political, philosophical, economic, or scientific orthodoxy of the president and faculty of a university. The trustees of Brown University are excellent gentlemen who have meant well, but who have made a serious blunder in trying to muzzle one of the most loyal, fair-minded, and sensible men who ever presided over an American college. It has been said that the trustees were afraid that President Andrews' opinions on the silver question might prevent certain prejudiced persons from giving money for the endowment of the institution. But the stories about men ready to give great gifts but for their conscientious opposition to the president are of course apocryphal. The greatest mischief that the blunder of the Brown trustees has accomplished has been the strengthening of an opinion, already too prevalent, that our American colleges and universities are becoming so eager to secure large gifts from multimillionaires that political economy must now be taught with constant reference to the alleged susceptibilities of those persons. In actual truth, the teaching in most of our higher institutions of learning is admirable for its fairness and tolerance. To return to the particular case of Dr. Andrews, the trustees should have remembered



HON. JOSEPH H. WALKER, OF MASSACHUSETTS.
(Dr. Andrews' chief opponent in the Brown board of trustees.)

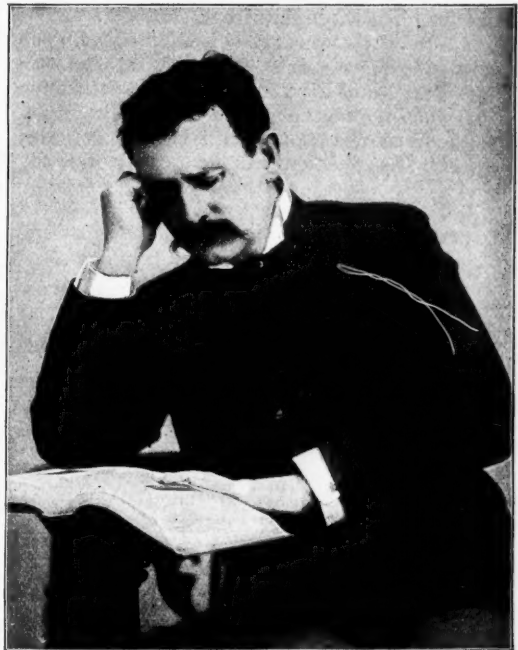
that he is exactly the same kind of man he was when they selected him with full knowledge of his qualities. They must have known that so forceful and energetic a personality would always have opinions of his own, and that his opinions could not be expected at every juncture to coincide with those of the members of the corporation. They seem to have been unduly led by the strong will of the Hon. Joseph H. Walker, of Massachusetts. Mr. Walker is a member of Congress and holds the important position of chairman of the Committee on Banking and Currency. Mr. Walker is not famous for an easy toleration of opinions different from his own. To express it in the amusing manner of a private correspondent, "This Brown affair is going to be historic—it is Roger Williams' battle over again, and it is Massachusetts, in the person of arrogant, blundering Joe Walker, that precipitates the controversy." Of course Mr. Walker is wholly sincere in his attitude.

Dr. Andrews'
New Field.

The *Cosmopolitan Magazine* for September makes the important announcement that President Andrews has consented to take the educational directorship of a new movement, to be called the *Cosmopolitan University*. This is to be a correspondence school, intended in the most practical manner to aid aspiring people in home study. The project is one conceived by Mr. John Bris-

ben Walker, of the *Cosmopolitan*. In the current September number of that magazine President Andrews has an interesting article, which we summarize as one of our "Leading Articles of the Month," in which he sets forth his views of modern education. In our great nation of seventy-five million people there is ample room for all existing educational agencies, and for many more besides. Every method that can be devised for giving educational opportunities to those who now lack them deserves welcome and encouragement. It is to be hoped, therefore, that President Andrews and Mr. Walker may have the largest measure of success in their new undertaking, which, as we understand it, is not intended to rival or to disparage any other work, but rather to supplement and aid everything that is worthy in our educational life.

There are some close observers of the trend of public opinion in the presidential campaign last year who express the opinion that Mr. Bryan would have been successful but for the sudden and very considerable rise in the price of wheat in the month of October, without any corresponding rise in the price of silver, which, instead, fell off considerably. But if the price relations of wheat and silver had any object-lesson to convey last autumn, the price



MR. JOHN BRISBEN WALKER.

phenomena of the present season should teach the lesson still more significantly. The price of wheat went up steadily in August, until it reached an average figure higher than at any harvest period for a number of years preceding. Cash wheat was worth a dollar a bushel in New York when this paragraph was written. At the same time, the price of silver fell day by day, until it had reached the lowest point on record; and after lingering for a few days it gradually but inevitably sagged still lower, with no prospect of an early recovery, but on the contrary with much prospect of a steady further decline. There is nothing whatever that is mysterious about the advance in the price of wheat, and nothing, on the other hand, that should be hard to understand in the fall in the price of silver. The two movements bear no causative relation to one another. Wheat has been going up because the world's available supply, as compared with the world's effective demand, is relatively small this year. As we explained last month, the European wheat crop is much scantier than usual, while of those countries that usually export wheat to Europe the United States is the only one that has a considerable surplus. This is not a normal situation, but it is for the moment a fortunate one for our farmers. A number of years ago, a condition of the world's markets that in the nature of things could not be permanent gave American farmers high prices through a series of seasons for all the wheat they could produce. The wheat-growing districts of the West and the money-lenders of the East counted altogether too much upon the continuance of those high prices, and the West was boomed on a basis of fictitious values. The reaction has been very serious.

The present recovery of prices should not be made the occasion for a new period of speculation, but it should be taken advantage of for the purpose of liquidating indebtedness and making ready to face low prices as the normal condition. Meanwhile we should be thankful for the present relief to the agricultural community, even though it should last for only a season or two.

*Silver
Approaching
the 40-to-1
Ratio*

As for the fall in the price of silver, it would seem to be due to market conditions that are as tangible as those that have influenced the price of wheat. The improved machinery used in the production of silver has materially lessened the average cost of the processes of mining and reduction, and has tended to enlarge the output. Much more than half of the silver now produced in this country comes from mines in which the silver is found in connection with lead or copper. The market demand for the other metals makes mining operations profitable even when the silver is put on the market at a very low price. Thus, considering silver as a commodity like lead, pig-iron, or copper, it is easy to understand that the falling price is due to a relatively increased supply as compared with the effective demand. It would seem that smaller quantities of silver than in former years have been sent to China and India for purposes other than monetary. The mints of India still remain closed against the coinage of the silver rupee. Japan has adopted the gold standard. The United States Government has ceased to buy and store silver bullion. Thus the conditions which tend to cheapen the cost of production and to enlarge the supply have been simultaneously opposed by conditions which have relatively lessened the demand. Within the last month the bullion value of our standard silver dollar has fallen to forty-two cents or less, whereas last year, when the political campaign was at its height, the bullion value of the dollar ranged from fifty-three to fifty cents.

*Will Plentiful
Gold Make
Cheap Gold?*

The rapid increase in the production of gold since the development of the South African gold-fields has led some students of monetary science to make the suggestion that the abundance of the yellow metal might change the tendency, so that the cheapening of gold would bring back something like the old ratio between the two money metals. These students of the subject would seem to have overlooked one very important fact. The increased output of gold has not only been concurrent with a greatly increased demand for it, but this increased demand has been the stronger and the more confident for the very reason that



WHEAT TO SILVER: "Go away and play with some one your own size."—From the *Times-Herald* (Chicago).

the enlarging production seemed to justify the new claim that gold might safely be made the single monetary standard of the whole commercial world. Russia, Austria, and Japan have been following the example of Germany, the United States, and France in adopting the English policy of a monetary system based upon the accumulation of gold reserves. This strengthened confidence in gold as a sufficient monetary standard has naturally been accompanied by a further disposition to let silver find its natural price level as an ordinary commodity. And so it happens that the increasing abundance of gold, instead of making silver more precious relatively, has had just the opposite effect, because it has made it seem the more possible to get along without silver as a money metal. This changing opinion in governmental and financial circles has undoubtedly tended to deprive silver of a certain traditional prestige which at other times has had to be reckoned with as a price-making factor.

*The World's
Gold
Output.*

The recently published figures prepared by the Director of the Mint, showing the world's recent output of gold, are worth studying. It is estimated that the total gold product of all countries for the year 1896 was \$205,000,000. For the year 1897 it is predicted that the aggregate output will be \$240,000,000, and the opinion is ventured that three years hence the annual production will have increased to \$300,000,000. That would mean a more than doubling of the yearly production of gold within a period of ten years—an economic fact of profound significance, bearing directly upon the question of the world's currency. Mr. Preston, whose figures we have been quoting, makes the following estimate of the comparative output of the gold-fields of seven different countries for the last year and this year:

	1896.	1897.
United States.....	\$53,000,000	\$60,000,000
Australia.....	46,250,000	52,550,000
South Africa.....	44,000,000	56,000,000
Russia.....	22,000,000	25,000,000
Mexico.....	7,000,000	9,000,000
British India.....	5,800,000	7,000,000
Canada.....	2,600,000	10,000,000

The United States still leads, although South Africa and Australia follow closely after. The altered position of Canada is due of course to the production of the Klondyke.

*Our Silver
Embassy
in Europe.*

In the face of all these facts, which would seem to bring Nature herself in to the contest against bimetallism, the work of the American monetary commissioners in Europe must be regarded as remarkable in a

high degree. Our readers will remember that Senator Wolcott, of Colorado, ex-Vice-President Stevenson, and Colonel Paine, of Massachusetts, all of them ardent bimetallists, were appointed by President McKinley in the early days of his administration to proceed to Europe to conduct negotiations for the calling of an international monetary conference which should agree upon a practical programme for greatly increasing the monetary use of silver. These gentlemen have been treated everywhere with the most distinguished consideration. They have found sympathy and support in high quarters at Paris, where the prime minister and many others in official position are avowed bimetallists. They have also been received with great courtesy in England, and their errand has been considered with all the serious attention to which it was entitled by the government of Great Britain. In other countries, moreover, they have been well received. Nevertheless, although it has been frequently reported from Europe that these American commissioners were on the eve of a great success, the prospect would seem to us to be quite otherwise. Japan has made her new coinage ratio 32 to 1—just twice as high as the nominal American ratio; but the market price of bullion has been rapidly moving toward the ratio of 40 to 1. In view of such conditions, no matter to what extent the demonetization of silver has caused the divergence, it would seem almost beyond belief that the French Government and the other members of the Latin Union could be induced to resume the free coinage of silver at their old ratio of 15½ to 1. The pluck, ingenuity, persistence, and optimism of our American silver commissioners in Europe entitle them personally to high praise. They are not discrediting their country by any means. But the grounds for their faith are not so easy to discover.

If the Klondyke gold-fields had been located under hospitable skies, with easy means of transportation, the rush of eager adventurers would have been unparalleled in history. As matters stand, the exodus of prospectors to Alaska has only been limited by the means of transit. All the steamships regularly sailing from points on the Pacific coast to Alaskan ports have been crowded to their utmost, and various other craft have been chartered to take special parties. Probably eight or ten thousand men in all have been carried as far as the Alaska coast. Most of them are taking the overland route, from Dyea, instead of making the long detour by way of the Yukon River. But the overland road is an exceedingly hard one to travel, and the number of would-be prospectors is vastly

*The Klondyke
Situation.*

in excess of the means for conveying outfits. The consequence is that a great many men have made a start on the fearful trail, with little prospect of getting over the Chilcoot Pass to the mining district before winter sets in. It is to be feared that the lack of sufficient supplies may entail serious sufferings. It is a great mistake for



COL. WM. L. DISTIN, U. S. SURVEYOR-GENERAL OF ALASKA.

any one to start for the Klondyke district—which lies practically on the arctic circle—without being well supplied with everything that he will need, especially with money. Juneau, the capital of the Territory of Alaska, will be crowded this winter with disappointed men who must wait until next summer to find the road passable to the Eldorado of their hopes. On the eve of the adjournment of Congress there was created the new office of Surveyor-General of Alaska. Hardly any surveying at all has been done in that vast region. Next spring there will be an enormous rush of American prospectors, and it is believed that the gold-bearing gravel-beds of the streams on the American side of the boundary line may prove to be as rich as those on the Canadian side. President McKinley has selected for the new position of surveyor-general a Quincy, Ill., man, Col. W. L. Distin, who is reported to be a popular citizen and a man in every way competent to fill a position that must require judgment and ability.

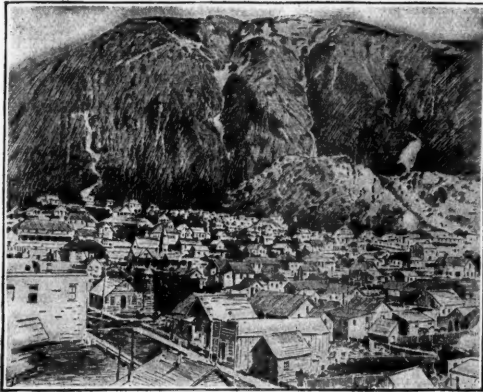
*Canadian Policy
in the
Gold District.*

There is of course no question as to the geographical location and governmental jurisdiction of the Klondyke diggings. They lie well within the British possessions. They are farther from the Ameri-

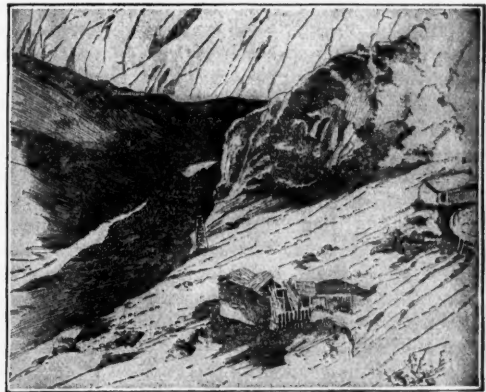
can line in fact than Toronto, Montreal, Quebec, Victoria, Halifax, or any other considerable Canadian town. The government of Canada, therefore, has the fullest right to make any arrangements it may deem best for the government of this new mining district. It belongs to Canada to prescribe all rules and regulations for the staking out, occupancy, and recording of claims. It is fully within the rights of the Canadian Government to reserve alternate claims, as was resolved by the Cabinet several weeks ago; and it would also be entirely permissible to levy as large a royalty upon the output of all mines as would be deemed advantageous to the Canadian treasury. It is of course lawful for the Canadian Government to collect the regular Canadian duties upon all miners' outfits or other commodities brought across the line. Farther than that, it is proper, in the fullest sense, that the Government of the United States should coöperate with the government of Canada in the establishment of facilities for the enforcement of the tariff and revenue laws at those points where the principal routes to the gold regions enter Canadian territory. It is for the Canadian Government, on the other hand, to decide whether it is, upon the whole, expedient to enforce the tariff laws with minute strictness on that distant frontier, and whether it is likely to prove a good policy to endeavor to collect large royalties on the diggings of the miners. The Canadian authorities are reported to have decided at first that they would exact a very



A CANADIAN MOUNTED POLICEMAN ON THE ALASKAN FRONTIER.



JUNEAU, THE CAPITAL OF ALASKA.



AT THE CHILCOOT PASS ON THE KLONDYKE ROAD.

large royalty, and then to have modified their plans, principally perhaps on account of the difficulties that would be encountered in so remote a region. Thus far, practically all of the gold that has left the Klondyke has been taken out by citizens of the United States, who have brought it to this country. Canada naturally wishes to know where her benefit is to come in under such an arrangement. There is involved a practical problem in taxation that our Canadian friends have a good right to work out in some way that will benefit them. Like all other problems in taxation, it has its difficulties in theory and its still greater difficulties in practice.

*The Tariff
and the
Returning Tourists.*

The new tariff has gone into operation with less friction than might have been expected. Those who do not like it have for the most part agreed to reserve their criticism. The country was manifestly tired of tariff discussion, and wanted nothing but a chance to do business upon some settled basis. It is generally admitted that the new tariff will yield an abundance of revenue after the first few months. The enormous volume of anticipatory imports will, of course, keep down the returns under the new law for half a year. American travelers returning from Europe have had to face the new fact that one may bring home free of duty not more than one hundred dollars' worth of clothing and personal effects bought abroad. On all articles in excess of this amount the regular duties must be paid. The abstract justice of this provision of the new law is too obvious to be disputed. Its expediency is less certain, and its efficiency can only be ascertained by considerable experience. Thus far the New York Custom-House officials declare that they have found it feasible to enforce the law, and that tourists coming home from foreign parts have been most surprisingly ready to

tell the truth frankly and to assist the officers. Almost everything depends upon the manner in which the more representative and influential citizens treat such a regulation. If instead of complaining about the law and showing a willingness to evade it they make it a point of good citizenship and of personal honor to tell the truth and aid the inspectors, there will soon be formed a public opinion against smuggling that will gradually reduce the extent of that demeaning offense. Under the old regulations women were the principal offenders, because there was nothing definite or absolute in the application of the rules. Where a little casuis-



UNCLE SAM'S WELCOME HOME TO OUR SUMMER TOURISTS.
From the *Herald* (New York).

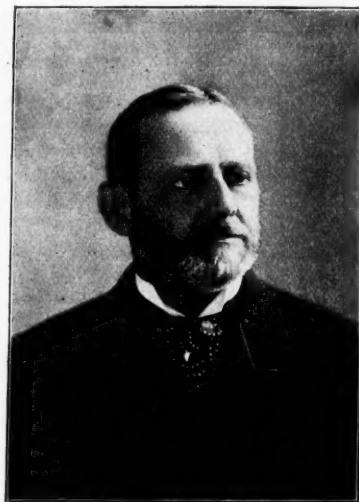
try will make it seem permissible to evade a regulation, women will offend more frequently than men. But where the rule is definite and the conscience has no loophole for escape, the honesty of women may be very generally relied upon as superior to that of men. All American women going abroad will now understand that they may spend one hundred dollars upon strictly personal effects, which may be brought home without paying duty. Other things bought abroad, including presents, must pay regular duties on a fair valuation without quibbling. This being the law, all travelers should govern themselves accordingly. Those who may try to escape by small tricks and equivocations will not be entitled to the good opinion of their neighbors. It is not an agreeable law, for there is nothing that travelers dislike so much as to pay duty on their acquisitions; but it is a law that should be enforced as long as it stands on the statute-book, and public opinion should compel travelers to accept it honorably.

*The Tariff
and the
European
Sugar Bounties.*

The sugar-producing countries of Europe have naturally objected very strongly to that clause in our new tariff which takes note of the export bounties paid by them, and provides that an exactly equivalent amount shall be added to the regular import duty as a countervailing charge. Since the decline of the Cuban sugar crop our purchases in Germany, France, and contiguous countries have enormously increased. Unfortunately, those countries, in their rivalry to develop the industry rapidly, have vied with one another in the paying of ever-increasing bounties on the export of sugar, with the result of making that commodity very high priced to their own home consumers and abnormally cheap in countries like England, whose markets are free. It is not much of an exaggeration to say that the English workingman's shilling will buy about twice as much German sugar as the German workingman's mark (a coin of like value) will buy in Germany. This situation has been advantageous to the English consumer and has greatly aided in the development of certain food industries in England which use large quantities of sugar, such for instance as the making of preserves, jams, and marmalades, which are sold all over the world. If the United States had wanted simply to provide American consumers for the immediate present with cheap sugar, and had not desired either to encourage home production or to obtain an increase of public revenue, it is manifest that it would have been best for us to adopt the English plan and fairly gorge ourselves upon the bounty-aided export sugar of the continental countries. England's policy suits her situation perfectly.

*Will Europe
Retaliate?*

But our Government has deliberately decided upon a different policy. It is proposed by this country to develop the industry of sugar-beet growing, and thus to provide American refiners with American-grown raw sugar. It does not need much reflection to see that the payment of export bounties by European countries operates in practice as a direct attack upon our American policy, and that the collection of countervailing duties equivalent in each instance to the bounty paid by the exporting country is a perfectly fair proposition. It is reported that Baron von Thielmann, who had been for a long time the ambassador from Germany to the United States, and who has now gone back to Germany and taken an important financial position in the cabinet, has been promoting negotiations with France and the other bounty-paying countries with a view to making a joint case against the United States on this clause of our new tariff. Instead, however, of a diplomatic protest against that and other features of our tariff, with dire threats of retaliation against this country, it would be better by far if Baron von Thielmann's project should take the form of an agreement to abandon altogether the vicious policy of paying export bounties.



BARON VON THIELMANN.

*The Ten-per-cent.
Clause and the
Canadian Route.*

Another feature of the new tariff that is involved in an atmosphere of controversy and dispute is one which provides that 10 per cent. shall be added to the regular duties on goods from foreign countries when such goods are not imported directly, but are brought here from contiguous territories. This clause, it would appear, was inserted in the new tariff act at the instance of gentlemen like Senator Elkins, of West Virginia, who have been working incessantly for measures

to benefit American shipping and transportation interests. It seems to have been incorporated in the bill without discussion or public notice. Its object was, however, revealed promptly enough last month, when large quantities of Oriental wares, brought across the Pacific in British ships connected with the Canadian Pacific Railway and then brought East by that line over British-American territory for delivery to the consignees in the United States, reached the custom-houses. The Canadian tariff, if we are not mistaken, requires the payment of an extra 10 per cent. on tea, coffee, and other Oriental products brought first to the United States and then sent across the Dominion line. This policy is intended, of course, to protect and promote the business of the ships which connect with the Canadian Pacific Railway.

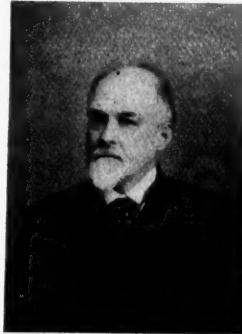
The Canadian Policy.

This feature of the Canadian tariff, taken in conjunction with the new arrangement which will give English goods 20 per cent. preference over American goods, would tend naturally enough to stir up in the United States a movement for a strongly anti-Canadian tariff policy. From the purely business point of view, Canada has much more to gain from cultivating her natural commercial relations with the United States than from any possible growth of business with England. There is, however, a margin of time for negotiations, since the new Canadian tariff policy cannot take complete effect until England is relieved of certain long-standing treaty obligations with Germany and Belgium, by the terms of which the British colonies are obliged to give as favorable terms to the trade of those countries as to that of England herself. Those treaties were terminable upon a year's notice, and England has now given that notice in order that the new Canadian tariff may have the effect that was intended by its framers. This has not greatly pleased the Germans, but it is not likely that any form of commercial retaliation on the part of Germany can be devised that would make the English sorry for having thrown up the old treaty.

Acquiescence in the New Tariff.

When the McKinley tariff of 1890 went into operation there was forthwith a great outcry raised against it on the ground that it had resulted in producing a sharp increase in the cost of living. The rates of duty prescribed in the Dingley tariff of 1897 average a little higher than those of 1890. Yet no popular clamor against it on the score of high prices is discoverable in any quarter. The altered state of the public mind is due to several facts. In 1890 the new tariff was promulgated on the

eve of a Congressional election, and there was every temptation on the part of the opponents of the measure to create an exaggerated prejudice. The law of 1897 goes into effect more than fifteen months before a national election. Furthermore, the Democratic opposition to the new Republican tariff has not been very positive or pronounced, and the whole country has perhaps never before accepted the dogmas of protectionism half so submissively. The leading Democrats of Louisiana gave a great reception to Senator McEnery on



SENATOR M'ENERY.

his return home, to indorse his conduct in supporting the Republican tariff, which had dealt so liberally with a great Louisiana product. A good many Democrats in Congress who voted against the bill on its final passage had been very actively interested in helping to shape certain protection features which concerned their own States or localities; and their votes at the

end were recorded in the negative merely for the sake of party form and consistency. They were aware that the bill would pass, and they abstained from the use of obstructive parliamentary tactics. The indications are, therefore, that the tariff question is settled for some time to come, and that public opinion will demand that it be let alone. Considered as a means for procuring a public revenue, the measure cannot be pronounced very scientific or consistent, but in its practical operation it will perhaps prove as equitable as other existing arrangements under which the long-suffering American people contribute to the public purse.

The Chaos of American Taxation.

The plain fact is that our American systems of taxation, however satisfactory they may once have been, have fallen into a shockingly chaotic state. The ups and downs of tariff legislation illustrate this remark no better than the experiences of States, counties, and cities in their endeavor to provide themselves with funds for the ever-increasing cost of their governmental functions. The old-fashioned theory and practice of American taxation for the support of the State and local governments were as simple as possible. It was made the duty of local assessors to ascertain the true value of all real property situated within their respective townships or districts, and also

to ascertain the value of the personal property of all persons residing within that same jurisdiction. Against this valuation of real and personal property was levied the tax-rates necessary for the expenses of the school district, the township, the village or municipality, the county and the State. Gradually a number of the States have adopted the plan of raising a State revenue in large part from a tax on the gross earnings of railroad and telegraph companies and other corporations, and from still other special sources. The general property tax, however, remains throughout the Union the principal source of supply for the State, and almost the sole source of income for the county, municipal, and local governments. In the earlier days of the country—that is to say, before the war—very few people questioned the excellence and practical fairness of taxation levied against the assessed value of all property. But the difficulties involved in this form of taxation have immensely increased with the developments of the past thirty years. The assessment of real estate has become extremely difficult. Those profound changes in transportation methods and in the sources of the world's food supply which have taken so much of the rental value out of English and Irish lands, have had a similarly disturbing effect upon the assessments for taxation purposes of lands in the United States. Twenty or thirty years ago real estate in New England and New York was valued very highly. Since that time the decline in Eastern agriculture has been most severe and painful. In the West there have been very violent fluctuations in the supposed value of land, and in the light of our more recent experiences there is scarcely a man who would claim wisdom enough to lay down practical rules that the assessor could understand and follow, by virtue of which a fair and equitable assessment of the farm lands of the country could be carried out.

Assessment Problems. But the assessment of real estate has been complicated still further by the rapid growth of towns and cities, involving a most unprecedented increase in the value of parcels of ground for building purposes. In and about these cities and towns is to be found much property as yet unoccupied, the ultimate value of which must depend upon the further growth and future prosperity of the community. In years of confidence and of industrial activity such building lots become a speculative commodity and sell rapidly at high prices. But in periods of reaction and business stagnation these unoccupied parcels of ground, particularly in the suburban zones, cannot be sold at any price. What, then, at such times, is their value

for purposes of assessment? Moreover, what answer shall be made to the question whether or not it is equitable to tax improvements—that is to say, buildings, etc.—at their full cost, thus making the men who build up the towns contribute toward the increased value of unoccupied lands held for speculative purposes? The growth of towns and the increasing costliness of buildings add constantly to the sum total of the value of the real estate against which taxes are levied. But the increase of the American wealth that is visible in lands and houses is not for a moment to be compared with the stupendous increase in other forms of wealth. The law makes it just as much the duty of assessors to find and list at full value the personal property of the citizens as to assess the real estate. Yet, in point of fact, except as certain corporations like banks are assessed on their capital stock, almost no personal property at all is listed for taxation in many communities. The best-informed students of this subject would probably aver that a great deal more than 95 per cent. of the personal property escapes assessment in some parts of the country.

The Case of Westchester County. Not many of the rich men living in or near New York have been accustomed to pay any personal taxes at all, while of those whose names are on the tax lists very few have been put down for anything more than a nominal sum representing a trifling fraction of their actual holdings of personal estate. The past month has witnessed a rather remarkable agitation on this subject of assessments in Westchester County, which lies just north of New York City, extending from the Hudson River to Long Island Sound, and which includes among its residents or property owners a much larger number of people of great reputed wealth than any other suburban district in the United States. Under the admonitions of one of the State judges, the Westchester County assessors attempted for the first time in many years to assess real estate at its true value. The sum total of the realty assessments for 1897 at once mounted up to three or four times as much as for 1896, the proportionate difference being still greater for some of the largest estates, such for instance as those of the Messrs. John D. and William Rockefeller. Furthermore, the assessors concluded to try the plan of finding some personal property to levy against. Thus in some neighborhoods, where in 1896 the total valuation of personal property was only a few thousand dollars, the valuation for 1897 is several millions. The total assessment of personal property in the county is many times as large this year as it was

last year. A great outcry has arisen against the assessors, and many rich men are leagued together to contest their action in the courts. The fact is that this agitation in Westchester County over assessments merely serves to illustrate our obsolete taxation methods. The pretense that it involves an attack upon rich men as such is no less erroneous than the opposite pretense that it reveals an evil disposition on the part of men of wealth to evade their fair share of public taxation. This year's assessment of real estate in Westchester County is very much nearer the intent of the law than last year's. But the suddenness of the change in the methods of the assessors would seem in many cases to involve practical injustice. As for the assessments of personal property—made in all cases arbitrarily and by pure guesswork without previous notice or consultation—it is to be said that they reach even yet only a small fraction of the personal property actually owned by the people assessed. Nevertheless, the assessment takes a form that looks like pure caprice and that bears no relation to any consistent policy in force throughout a State in which the personal-property tax has long been a farce.

*Crying Need
of Tax
Reform.*

No principle is involved, nor is any conclusion or moral to be drawn except that our methods and mechanism of taxation are totally obsolete. The difficulties of assessment and taxation in and about Chicago illustrate precisely the same fact. The tendency everywhere, from the national Government down to villages and school districts, is to increase the sums annually expended through governmental agencies. The public budgets are not only increasing absolutely from time to time, but it could probably be shown that they are also increasing relatively—that is to say, the public purse demands and receives from time to time an increasing percentage of the aggregate wealth annually produced by all workers in all spheres of economic utility. This being true, it is certainly a matter of great consequence that the share of the general wealth that is taken for public uses should not be collected by haphazard, uncertain, and inequitable methods, but that it should be contributed under sound, workable principles, not difficult of practical application. We have been too well satisfied with ourselves in this country, and too prone to keep old methods long after we have outgrown them, quite unaware of the fact that European countries, supposedly conservative, have had the courage to try sweeping innovations in order to adjust their methods to the conditions of our end of the century.

*Currency
Reform.*

We have of late been concerning ourselves over the question of the reform of the currency, and very rightly. And yet, if it were half as easy to improve and modernize our methods of general taxation as it will be to simplify, unify, and give elasticity to the national currency, we might consider ourselves fortunate. As our pages went to press last month—carrying the announcement that the new tariff had been completed in conference committee, accepted by both houses, and signed by President McKinley—there was sent from the White House to Congress a brief message in which the President recommended the creation of a special currency commission. A bill authorizing the President to appoint a commission of non-partisan experts, who should be ready to make a report to Congress next December, was at once passed by the House of Representatives and sent to the Senate. The Senators, however, failed to take action upon it, and Congress adjourned. It was not expected that the Senate would be willing to take up the money question in any form whatsoever, but the President and the House had at least done what they could. The executive committee appointed last winter by the Indianapolis sound-money convention has now, in accordance with its instructions, taken up the appointment of an unofficial commission. Secretary Gage, on behalf of the administration, will doubtless continue his study of the question, and thus it is likely that some interesting proposals will be laid before Congress and the country in December.

*Our
Foreign
Relations.*

There is never a time when any great nation has not some questions under discussion with other countries which require the service of its best diplomats and which afford topics for exploitation by the press. No matter how trivial such questions might seem to be, they always need careful and intelligent treatment. Blundering and tactless methods may very possibly turn trifles into affairs of serious moment. No other great country in the world has to-day so little to be worried about in foreign relations as our own. Our relations with England were never so good at any time in our history as they are at present. To magnify into a serious quarrel the discussion over regulations for protecting the fur seals is absurd in the extreme. Nor does there seem to be the slightest savor of ill-will or the faintest thought of hostility on either side in the discussion with Japan concerning the rights of Japanese laborers in the Sandwich Islands. The war in Cuba of necessity makes a large amount of business for diplomatic discussion between our country and Spain. But as yet our peaceful relations with

Spain are not seriously menaced. The worst danger nowadays to the peace of nations is to be found in the recklessness of the press. The newspapers of a country should exercise the utmost



THE LATE SENOR CANOVAS.

freedom in discussing domestic affairs, but they ought always to cultivate a considerable reserve in treating of matters that might affect the peaceful relations of their country with foreign powers. Nothing could be more reprehensible than the recent attempts on the part of certain American newspapers to decoy and beguile Secretary Sherman into remarks which could be printed as interviews of a kind that might needlessly offend the susceptibilities of some other country. If Secretary Sherman ever made certain of the remarks recently attributed to him—which we do not for a moment believe—he certainly did not make them for publication, and the papers that have printed them have behaved mischievously and unpatriotically.

On Sunday, August 8, the Prime Minister of Spain was shot and killed at a watering-place where he was sojourning during the parliamentary vacation. The assassin was an obscure person of Italian origin, who had espoused the views of the anarchists. There is no evidence that his action was ordered by any conspiring group or committee, although it was at first claimed that Golli—or Angiolillo, which seems to be his real name—was the agent of Spanish anarchists seeking revenge for the harsh

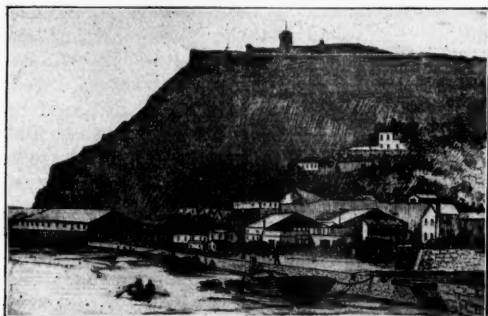
treatment to which many scores of persons arrested at Barcelona on suspicion had been subjected, in the dungeons of Montjuich, after the dastardly bomb-throwing episode of May, 1896. Canovas, as the head of the Spanish Government, was naturally the person with whom the anarchists would choose to deal by way of revenge. There is no reason for supposing that the situation in Cuba or the Philippines, or any phase of ordinary political controversy at home, was in any manner involved in the crime which has deprived Spain of her leading statesman. Canovas had been identified with Spanish political life for a very long period. More than any one else perhaps he had been accorded the credit of bringing back the present dynasty. He was a man of great force and ability, with a blunt and outspoken manner that does not belong to Spanish politicians as a class. He was particularly fond of literary pursuits, in which he was perhaps more versatile than felicitous. We are glad to have been able to secure, for this issue of the REVIEW, some valuable comments upon the career of Canovas and the recent course of Spanish politics, from the pen of Dr. J. L. M. Curry, formerly the United States minister at Madrid, and the author of a very useful volume on the constitutional development and progress of Spain. It would be useless to make any predictions as to the effect that the death of Canovas will have upon the political and military fortunes of his



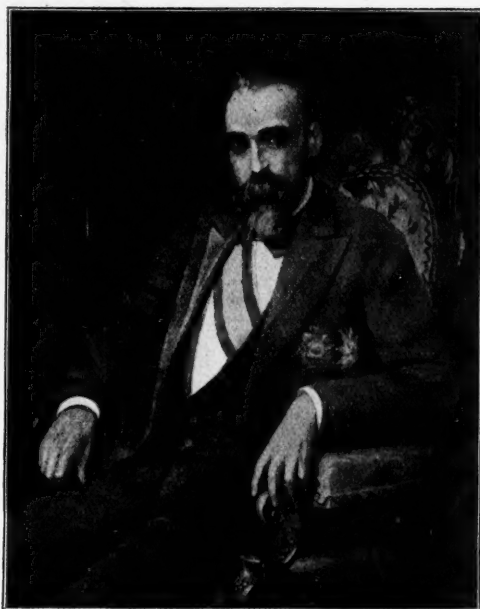
GEN. MARCELO AZCARRAGA.
(The new head of the Spanish Cabinet.)

country. On the first report of the assassination, the friends of Cuba asserted that the death of Canovas meant the end of the war and the independence of the island. But the friends of Spain were equally ready to assert that in the presence of such a crime as the assassination of the premier all personal and party differences would be forgotten, and the whole Spanish nation rise as one man to vindicate the national honor and save the national heritage. The queen at once designated the minister of war, General Azcarra, to serve as the head of the cabinet, and no changes of importance have taken place in the situation. There have been reports of a new coalition cabinet which should include Gen. Martinez Campos and Señor Sagasta, the leader of the Liberal opposition; but no such readjustment of official leadership is likely to occur, at least for several months. The news from Cuba for some weeks past does not seem to be fraught with much significance one way or the other.

A Risk of Modern Rulers. After the death of Canovas it was industriously rumored in Paris that the anarchists had arranged for a series of dramatic assassinations, and that the next man on the list was to be President Faure. Such rumors of course are usually without foundation, for assassination always comes without previous announcement. Nevertheless, assaults, successful or unsuccessful, upon the lives of men in high office have become so frequent that any man who represents sovereignty or exercises practical governing authority nowadays, incurs some distinct danger. The assailants would seem more generally to be persons of disordered mind, acting wholly on their own impulse, rather than the agents of organized groups of political revolutionists. It is greatly to the credit of men engaged in a movement like the Cuban insurrection that they do not resort to assassination. All true



THE FORTRESS OF MONTJUICH, OVERLOOKING BARCELONA, WHERE MANY ANARCHISTS HAVE BEEN EXECUTED RECENTLY AND SCORES OF SUSPECTS TORTURED.



SEÑOR D. JUAN COLL Y PUJOL, NEW MAYOR OF BARCELONA.

friends of the Cuban cause were heartily glad to know that it was an Italian anarchist, and not a Cuban patriot, who committed the shameful crime of last month. The rumors that President Faure was marked for the next anarchist victim were undoubtedly circulated because that dignitary's proposed trip to Russia had brought him into very especial prominence. Yet a bomb was actually exploded near his railroad station on the day he started, and an attempt against the Grand Vizier of Constantinople was also reported on the same day, August 18.

The Czar's August Visitors. In order to avoid the necessity of crossing German territory, it was arranged that the president of the French republic should go to St. Petersburg by sea. Accordingly he set sail on Wednesday, August 18, on the man-of-war *Pothuau*, which vessel was accompanied by two other ships of the French navy, namely, the *Bruix* and the *Surcouf*. The embarkation was from the port of Dunkirk, and it was expected that the squadron would reach Cronstadt on Monday, the 23d, and start back to France on the 26th, after three days spent in magnificent ceremonials. The German emperor and empress meanwhile had completed their visit to Russia and were safely back in their own country some days before the head of the French State started to pay his respects to the czar. The Emperor William, in the opinion of many of his



Prince Henri D'Orleans.



The Count of Turin.



General Albertone.

THREE FIGURES IN A RECENT INTERNATIONAL EPISODE.

German subjects, made himself more obsequious to the czar and showed more eagerness to be on terms of intimacy with Russia than was consistent with the dignity of the German empire. It is believed in Germany that the principal diplomatic object of this visit of the German emperor and his leading statesmen to the czar and his ministerial advisers had direct reference to England.

Kaiser Wilhelm's Activity. The British empire is causing the restless and nervous ruler of Germany a great deal of anxiety and distress. He would like, if possible, to form an anti-British coalition, which should include Russia and France and which would ultimately benefit the projects of Germany in South Africa, of Russia in Central Asia and China, and of France in Siam and elsewhere. On a certain day last month a number of leading newspapers in Germany, as if inspired from governmental headquarters, took up the question of the Transvaal and asserted the right of the Boers to reject altogether the suzerainty of Great Britain. At home, the German emperor has of late been overruled in the matter of the bill which proposed to give to the police the right to break up political meetings *ad libitum*, the motive of the measure being to suppress gatherings of the Social Democrats. But the emperor keeps up his spirits and his manifold activity, and it makes one's head dizzy simply to read of the manner in which he rushes from one function to another. In the third week of August he was attending the naval exercises near the port of Dantzig. On August 25 he was to be present at the unveiling of a great monument to his grandfather, the old Emperor William, at Magdeburg. Five days later he was to be at Coblenz, where the Rhine and the Moselle unite their waters, to

deliver an important speech on the occasion of the dedication of a great public monument. Two or three days later he was to be at Homburg to witness the army maneuvers, where he was also to meet the crowned heads of Italy.

An International Duel. A duel was fought on Sunday, August 15, between a young French notoriety-seeker, commonly known as Prince Henri of Orleans, and a young Italian of no importance whatever except the fact that he has the title of Count of Turin and is a nephew of the King of Italy. This affair was very foolishly exaggerated into an event of grave international significance by the newspapers of Italy and France. Prince Henri has for some years been trying to acquire a reputation for himself, and has proved to be a self-advertiser of considerable ability. He posed a year or two ago as an Asiatic explorer, on very doubtful credentials. More recently he has made a visit to Abyssinia as a newspaper correspondent for *Figaro*. The only thing in his letters that secured public attention was a series of most insulting charges against the courage, honor, and decent self-respect of the Italian officers who had been captured in the Abyssinian war and were in Menelik's hands as prisoners while Prince Henri was visiting the country. As soon as these Italian officers were set at liberty and were aware of Prince Henri's insulting charges, they were all bent upon challenging the French adventurer. The only challenge that was seriously considered came from that eminent but unfortunate participant in the Abyssinian campaign, General Albertone. His challenge, however, was set aside at the very last in favor of one which came from the young Count of Turin, whose royal lineage gave him precedence. Neither of these young

gentlemen is a personage of formidable appearance, but both are fairly expert swordsmen, and the duel was actually fought near Paris at sunrise on the date mentioned above. Prince Henri was stabbed in the abdomen, and thus the honor of the Italian nation was considered to be gloriously vindicated. There are no facts to show that any real effort was made by either the French or the Italian government to prevent this disgraceful occurrence. One of Prince Henri's seconds was Colonel Leontieff, whose portrait appeared in our issue for last month as that of the Russian now in high favor at the court of King Menelik and has been made governor of the equatorial provinces of Abyssinia.

*England
and the
Soudan.*

The English Government, while constantly sending more troops and munitions of war to South Africa, is just now giving especial attention to the expedition that will ultimately occupy Khartoum. Another advance has been made by the Anglo-Egyptian forces under Sir Herbert Kitchener, and the important position known as Abu Hamid, above the Fourth Cataract, is now the expeditionary headquarters. A railroad is being pushed to that point from Wady Halfa, which is a point below the Second Cataract. Some powerful gunboats, now being completed in England, will be carried in sections over this railroad to get them past the worst cataracts, and will be put into the water at Abu Hamid. They will have clear navigation all the way to Khartoum. The one

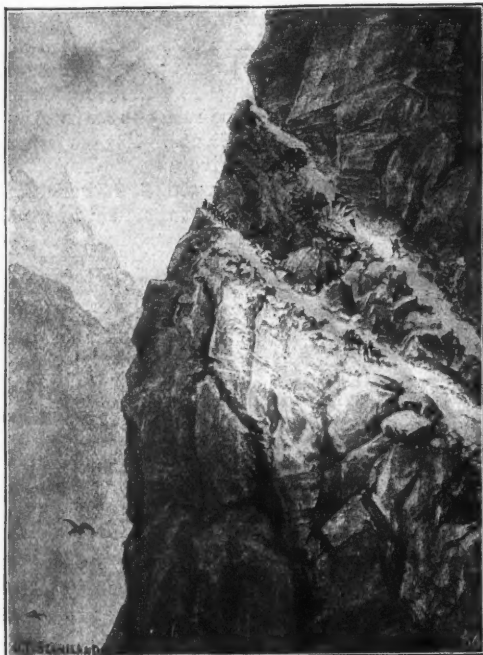
important military position between Abu Hamid and Khartoum is Berber. It is possible that Sir Herbert Kitchener's troops may advance to that point without waiting for the gunboats, which it is expected will be ready to leave Abu Hamid four or five months hence. The dervishes are by no means ready to give up the situation, and it is expected that they will fight valiantly and in pretty large force. But they will have no weapons that can withstand the armament of the English gunboats or the light artillery and rapid-fire machine guns with which Sir Herbert Kitchener is so abundantly supplied. The Caliph Abdullah, who is the successor of the mahdi, has Osman Digna as his mighty man of valor and the captain of his host. English pluck and science will prevail against the fierce fanaticism and unshrinking courage of the Arab Mohammedans of the desert; but there may be some hard fighting before the campaign is done.

*England
on the
Afghan Borders.*

In still another quarter English pluck and military science are facing Mohammedan fanaticism. The emissaries of the Turkish sultan have been doing their best to stir up the Mohammedans of India to a revolt against the British, in order to pay-off England for concerning herself so much about the massacred Armenians. These representatives of the sultan have received altogether too much encouragement from the Ameer of Afghanistan and his principal officers. Just across the line from Afghanistan are the extreme northwestern districts of British India, occupied by Mohammedan tribesmen who are closely related to the Afghans and who have never in good faith accepted English rule. These tribes seem to have been supplied with arms and ammunition by the ameer's own generals. Several years ago, at a time of disturbance in that remote mountain region, the British Government sent an expedition that penetrated as far as Chitral—a point which had been previously considered as well across the borders in Afghanistan. Looking at the matter purely from the military standpoint, it was the judgment of many English statesmen that there should be no attempt made to retain Chitral permanently. Lord Salisbury, however, reversed Lord Rosebery's judgment on that point, and the garrison at Chitral was maintained. In order to hold that point it was necessary to keep open a long and almost incredibly difficult line of communication. A chief strategic point in this line is the Malakand Pass, in the mountain range which has heretofore been considered the boundary line between British India and Afghanistan. Malakand is perhaps a hundred miles south of Chitral. The garrison at Malakand has numbered about three



A^{MD}-ER-RAHMAN KHAN, AMEER OF AFGHANISTAN.



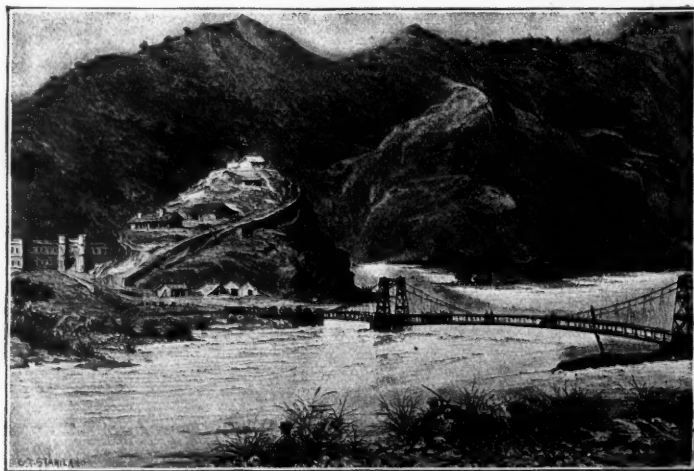
THE MALAKAND PASS.

(The junction of the old Buddhist road and the new military road.)

thousand soldiers, most of them native Indian troops with English officers. Some weeks ago the tribesmen to the number of many thousands arose in open revolt against the British, and attacked the garrisons, concentrating with particular energy at Malakand and Chakdara. The British Indian Government hurried reinforcements forward, and these arrived in time to relieve the garrisons, whose peril lay in the approaching exhaustion of their supplies of food and ammunition. The instigators of all this uneasiness in India had evidently hoped to cause a mutiny in the army. Thousands of copies of incendiary books and pamphlets, intended to promote a "holy war," had been circulated among the native troops which make up the British Indian army. But the Sepoys have not forgotten the lesson of forty

years ago, and they will not mutiny. Already it seems likely that the uprising on the Chitral route is for the most part suppressed. Large bodies of troops have, however, been continuously sent forward as reinforcements, and the episode will have cost British India a good deal of money.

The past month of August has been precisely like the preceding month of July in its steady series of official news dispatches from Constantinople to the effect that the terms of peace between Turkey and the Greeks had been fully arranged, and that the formal treaty was to be signed on a given day. Up to the time of the present writing these reports have proved to be totally devoid of truth or meaning. It is possible that the representatives of the great powers in their conferences with the Turkish Government have been making great progress toward a settlement; but there is no outward evidence of any progress whatsoever. The Turks are acting upon the principle that possession is everything and are making themselves more and more at home in Thessaly. The powers still keep their naval representatives in Cretan waters, but the opposing factions of the Cretan population are by no means pacified, and a state of anarchy prevails throughout most of the island. There have been renewed reports that the King of Greece intends to resign on account of the alleged determination of the powers to put the finances of Greece under control of a European commission. The German holders of Turkish bonds are believed to be exerting a great deal of influence behind the scenes.

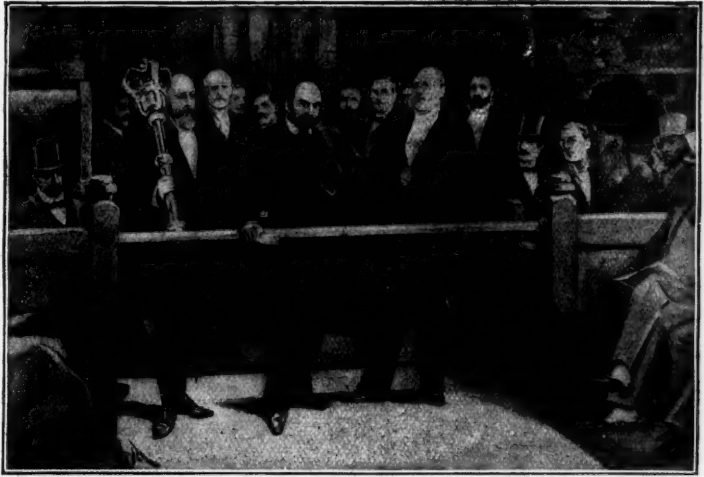


THE FORT OF CHAKDARA, ON THE RIVER SWAT, THE GARRISON OF WHICH WAS RECENTLY RELIEVED.

If the Greek revenues are taken hold of by European financiers the indemnity money will not reach Constantinople at all, but will go directly to the holders of Turkish securities.

The Recent Parliamentary Session in England.

The session of the British Parliament came to an end with a promptness that was very pleasing to the members; for the British statesman hates to have public business detain him at Westminster when holiday time has come. The recess began with the second week of August, in good season for the grouse-shooting period, which always marks the orthodox time for pro-rogation. Englishmen who belong to the leisure class are now enjoying themselves in all parts of the United Kingdom, or else are on their vacation travels to the uttermost ends of the earth. The session accomplished very little in the way of innovation, although two important enactments must be credited to it—one of them Mr. Chamberlain's employers' liability bill, which became a law after some amending in the House of Lords, and the other the measure which subsidizes denominational schools. It looked at one time as if the whitewashing report of the Parliamentary committee on the Jamieson raid might not be made the subject of a debate in the House of Commons; but a few resolute critics of that report forced a discussion and a vote. The matter was brought up in the form of a motion by Mr. Stanhope, which demanded that Mr. Hawksley, the attorney for Cecil Rhodes, should be ordered to appear at the bar of the House and produce the telegrams that had passed between Mr. Rhodes in Africa and his representatives in London. The debate made it clear that the government proposed to stand by Mr. Chamberlain on the one hand and Mr. Rhodes on the other to the very utmost. Mr. Stanhope's motion was defeated by a vote of 304 to 77. But although Mr. Hawksley was not ordered to appear, the House had the satisfaction of summoning to its august presence a London money-lender named Kirkwood, who had refused to give testimony to a Parliamentary committee that was investigating certain scandalous aspects of the business of loaning money at usurious rates. The contrast af-



AN EPISODE IN THE PARLIAMENTARY INQUIRY ON MONEY-LENDING.

(Mr. John Kirkwood called to the bar of the House of Commons for refusing to answer questions.)

forded by the refusal to punish Hawksley's serious offense, while dealing so severely with Kirkwood for refusing to violate the confidence of his clients, has put the House of Commons in a rather unfavorable light before the world. The British finances, it may be remarked in passing, have been satisfactory enough this year to enable the Admiralty to announce the beginning of a number of additional armored cruisers of the most powerful and swift type, and also a number of torpedo-boats. Naval enthusiasm is greater than ever in England.

An Oriental potentate who is at present enjoying British hospitality and having his photograph taken innumerable times for the illustrated papers is the King of Siam. In his own country he is wholly Oriental in appearance; but in England he dresses as a European and looks a good deal like the bright-faced and intelligent Japanese public men who visit the United States from time to time. This royal gentleman's name is Chulalongkorn I. He will be forty-four years old this month. Next fall he can celebrate the completion of thirty years on the throne. He has several young sons, one of whom, with a nephew, is in school at Harrow. While Queen Victoria in her long reign has been gaining much territory, this King of Siam in his shorter one has not been so lucky; for a considerable slice of the boasted British empire has been gained at his expense, while the French, from another direction, have also been encroaching to an enormous extent. The king has remaining to him possibly

• *The King of Siam on His Travels.*



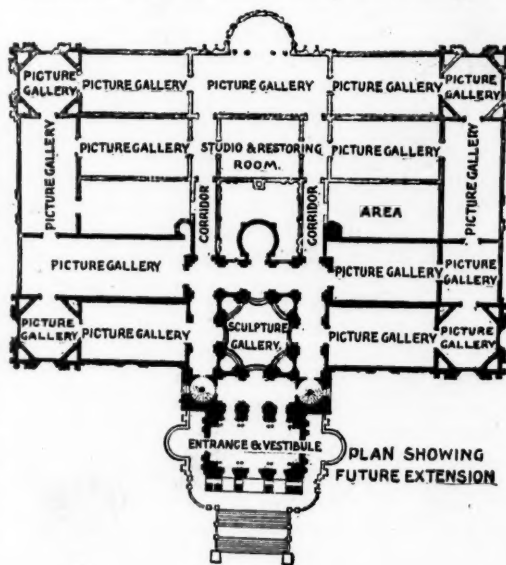
THE OPENING OF THE NATIONAL GALLERY OF BRITISH ART—THE PRINCE OF WALES THANKING MR. TATE IN THE NAME OF THE BRITISH NATION.

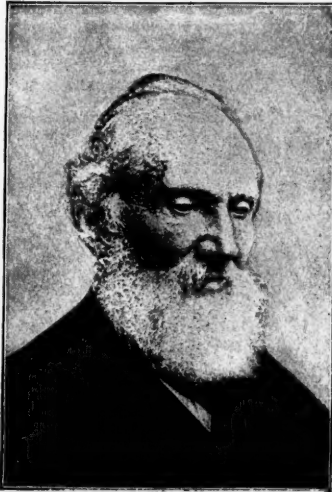
two hundred thousand square miles, with a population of five millions. Either England or France would gobble the whole country up on short notice but for their antagonism of one another.

The Tate Gallery in London. The most interesting and substantial memorial of the jubilee year is the opening of the Tate Gallery in London. Mr. Tate is a public-spirited gentleman who offered to contribute some hundreds of thousands of dollars for the building of a national gallery to be devoted to the works of British artists, if the government would furnish a site. A suitable place was secured by the demolition of the old Milbank Prison. The new gallery has been opened with a most interesting exhibition of pictures, and it will stand henceforth as one of the great attractions of the British metropolis. A diagram which we publish herewith shows the architect's ground plans as providing for great future extensions of the building with the growth of its collections of art treasures. It will now be in order for some American millionaire to build and endow an American gallery in New York, Washington, or Chicago, for the collection of worthy pictures and works of art by our own native artists. Undoubtedly such an institution, with annual exhibitions and prizes for new works of merit, would have a favorable influence upon the development of American art.

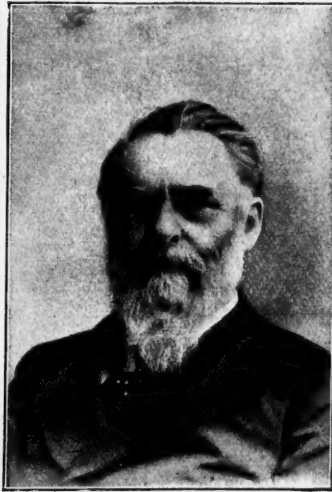
Some Notable Gatherings.

The Lambeth Conference, which took so many representatives of the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States to England to meet with the representatives of the Established Church of that country and the Episcopal delegates from the British colonies, was an uncommonly interesting and

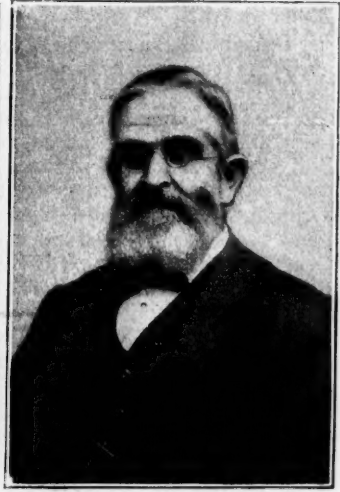




LORD KELVIN,
Foremost British scientist.



PROF. F. W. PUTNAM, OF MASS.,
President of the American Assoc'n.



SIR JOHN EVANS,
President of the British Assoc'n.

useful affair. The conference repudiated all idea of an ecclesiastical union which might lessen the independence of the American and colonial churches, agreeing that the best results would be found in voluntary counsel and fellowship. Its resolutions declared strongly for critical study of the Bible by those competent to carry on such inquiries; urged renewed zeal and effort in missionary propaganda in non-Christian countries; contained a strong paragraph in favor of international arbitration, and exhibited on many other subjects a great deal of practical wisdom, together with a most commendable spirit. A number of Americans have also attended an international library conference in London. English scientists, on the other hand, have come this year to Toronto as the meeting-place of the British Association. Several hundred representatives of English scientific progress and scholarship have crossed the sea, the most eminent of them being Lord Kelvin, who is foremost, perhaps, among all living men of science. The American Association had this year held its meeting at Detroit, just before the gathering at Toronto, and its members largely accepted the cordial invitation to attend the sessions of the British Association.

*Affairs
in New York.*

The New York politicians have become much concerned about the great impending municipal campaign. President Seth Low has been spending the summer quietly on the coast of Maine, but on his return to New York early in the present month his friends will be able to show him a list of con-

siderably more than one hundred thousand signatures of New York voters who have declared that they desire his nomination and election as mayor. This means that the candidate of the Citizens' Union must almost of necessity be endorsed by the Republicans. Tammany has been casting about very anxiously for a presentable figure-head to place in nomination against Mr. Low, but has not as yet found a man. Mr. Croker's retirement from the leadership of Tammany is declared by him to be absolute, and John C. Sheehan now holds undisputed sway at "the wigwam." Meanwhile, the efficiency of the administration of Mayor Strong is evinced in many ways. The summer death-rate has not been so low in twenty-five years as within the past few weeks. Some of the worst slums on the East Side are in process of demolition to make room for small parks. In almost every department of the city government there are healthy signs of progress. Early in the month which comes under review Col. Frederick D. Grant resigned from the Police Board, on the ground that he was opposed to certain methods which the chief of police was using, with the sanction of the board, for the detection and prevention of vice. Colonel Grant's place was at once filled by the appointment of Col. George M. Smith, a business man of excellent standing and character, and head of one of the New York militia regiments. One of the most important public improvements of the immediate future is the great public library that is to be built upon the site of the old reservoir on Fifth Avenue, between Fortieth and Forty-second Streets. The

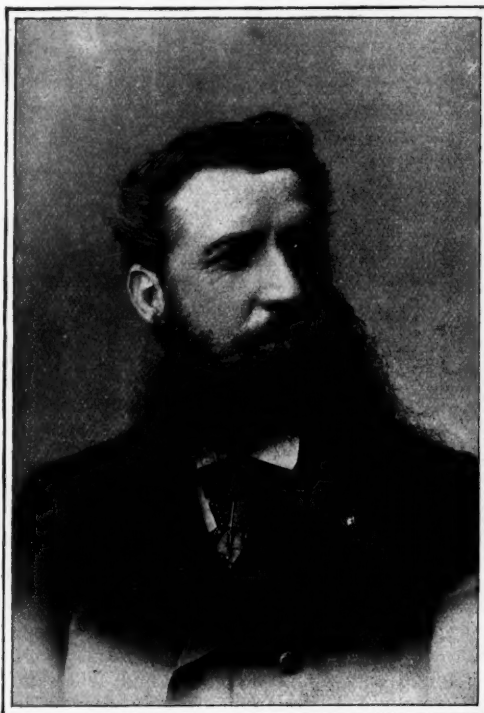
architects are busy on competitive plans. The city contributes the site and a certain amount of money for the building, while the endowment will be provided by the Astor Library, the Tilden trust, and the Lenox Library—these three foundations being now united, with Dr. John S. Billings as their administrative chief. The prospect for the early construction of the proposed underground rapid-transit system is improving. Land has been purchased or condemned for the terminals of a second bridge across the East River to Brooklyn. There is a prospect of an immediate resumption of work upon the tunnel to connect New York with New Jersey, the greater part of which was constructed some time ago. The building plans have been completed for a great botanical garden in Bronx Park, in the upper portion of New York. Still other things might be enumerated to show that the city is developing and improving in a manner that bids fair within the next ten years to work an amazing transformation.

The Nicaragua Commissioners.

The new commission on the Nicaragua Canal recently appointed by President McKinley has held a preliminary conference to devise plans of action. The three gentlemen who compose it possess most eminent qualifications, and it has seemed to us that an account of their careers would furnish for this number of the REVIEW a triple character sketch of much interest to our readers. Each of the members of the commission, representing the army, the navy, and civil life, is an engineer of high standing and enviable record. Few people, perhaps, have ever paused to consider how large a part the engineer has played in the development of the United States.

Mr. McKinley as a Reformer.

President McKinley has been spending his vacation at an attractive resort near Plattsburgh, on Lake Champlain. Before leaving Washington he promulgated an order which most effectively answered the incessant rumors that he was about to undo the civil-service reform work of his predecessor in office. Mr. McKinley not only extends the merit system to many offices where it was not in use before, but he deals sweepingly with the question of removals. All previous extensions of the civil-service reform policy had concerned themselves solely with the method of appointment, and it still remained possible for appointing officers to dismiss subordinates arbitrarily on any ground whatsoever. Mr. McKinley's new order prohibits dismissals except for good cause, and gives the employee the right to know the charges against him and to be heard



MAJOR MOSES P. HANDY,
Special commissioner of the United States for the Paris Exposition.

in his own defense. The reformers are delighted and the spoilsmen have been gnashing their teeth. The country is with the President.

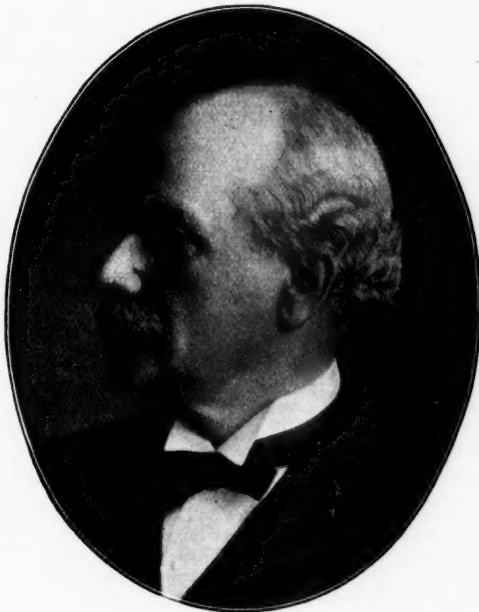
Several appointments are to be noted, among them that of Mr. Ethan A. Hitchcock, of St. Louis, to be Minister to Russia. Mr. Moses P. Handy, whose work as chief of the department of promotion contributed so greatly to the success of the World's Fair at Chicago, has been appointed American commissioner for the French Exposition of three years hence. This appointment means that the United States will make a good display at Paris, for Mr. Handy will both know what is appropriate and also how to give his ideas effect. Mr. Hitchcock is a business man of large interests, a manufacturer and railroad president, who has resigned all his positions of business trust in order to go to St. Petersburg at a time when President McKinley believes a business man of the first caliber might very considerably aid in the development of the growing trade relations between Russia and the United States. Mr. Hitchcock is a great-grandson of Col. Ethan Allen, of Fort Ticonderoga fame, a grandson of the

Some Further Appointments.

Samuel Hitchcock who was prominent in the early history of Vermont, and a son of Henry Hitchcock, an eminent lawyer, who went as a young man from Vermont to Alabama and became Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of that State. One of the uncles of our new representative at the Russian court was the late Maj.-Gen. E. A. Hitchcock, of the United States Army, and his brother is the distinguished St. Louis lawyer and eminent citizen, Henry Hitchcock. The new minister was born in Mobile, Ala., just sixty-two years ago, but has been identified with St. Louis most of his life. He spent the twelve years from 1860 to 1872 in China as the representative of important business interests. The appointment is an excellent one in every way.

*Justice Stephen
J. Field.*

The proud distinction of the longest period of continuous service on the Supreme bench of the United States is a record that now belongs to Associate Justice Stephen J. Field. Chief Justice John Marshall served from January 31, 1801, to July 6, 1835. Justice Field took his place on the bench on March 10, 1863, and on August 15 he had served for exactly the same number of years, months, and days as Chief Justice Marshall. Justice Field has passed his eightieth year, and although his mind is clear and strong, he is in somewhat enfeebled health. Chief Justice Roger



ETHAN ALLEN HITCHCOCK, MINISTER TO RUSSIA.



JUSTICE FIELD, OF THE UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT.

B. Taney died while still in active service in his eighty-eighth year. Justice Field has made no announcement of his intention to retire to private life. He is one of four distinguished brothers, two of whom are dead. Cyrus W. Field died in 1892 and David Dudley Field in 1894. The Rev. Dr. Henry M. Field, who is now seventy-five years of age, is the surviving brother of the eminent jurist.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From July 21 to August 20, 1897.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

July 21.—The Senate begins debate of the conference report on the tariff bill....The House passes a resolution asking for an investigation of the restrictions placed by foreign governments on the sale of American tobacco.

July 22-23.—The Senate continues debate on the tariff bill....The House passes bills suspending discriminating tonnage duties on foreign vessels and establishing a new land district in Alaska.

July 24.—The Senate adopts the conference committee's report on the tariff bill by a vote of 40 to 30, and after receiving President McKinley's signature the bill becomes a law....The House passes a bill for a currency commission in accordance with President McKinley's message; Speaker Reed announces his committee appointments....The extra session of the Fifty-fifth Congress comes to an end.



(From the New York Journal.)

JOHN C. SHEEHAN.

(Who will lead Tammany Hall in the New York municipal campaign.)



HON. ROBERT J. TRACEWELL.

(New Comptroller of the Treasury.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

July 24.—The new tariff law goes into effect.

July 28.—President McKinley makes important changes in the civil-service rules, prohibiting removals without cause and extending the custom-house classification.

July 29.—President McKinley enters on his summer vacation at Lake Champlain.

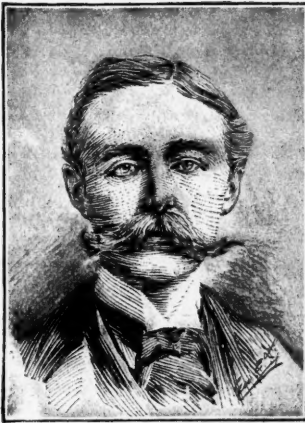
July 30.—Mayor Strong, of New York City, accepts the resignation of Police Commissioner Frederick D. Grant.

July 31.—Mayor Strong appoints Col. George Moore Smith Police Commissioner of New York City, to succeed Colonel Grant.

August 5.—The Nicaragua Canal Commission meets in New York City and elects Admiral Walker president.

August 9.—The Canadian Government decides to appoint an administrator for the Yukon gold region, to amend the mining regulations so as to reduce from 500 feet to 100 feet the width of a claim running along a stream, and to establish a court for the administration of civil and criminal justice in the gold district.

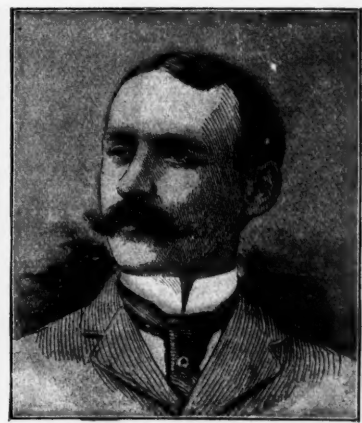
August 11.—The Ohio Populists nominate Jacob S. Coxey for governor, defeating fusion with the Silver Democrats by a vote of 535½ to 174½....The Attorney-General decides that goods produced in a foreign country not contiguous to the United States which are shipped to Canada and are exported to the United States are subject to the discriminating duty of 10 per cent. provided for in the new tariff act....The New



HON. M. H. HERBERT.
(Appointed to manage the British case before the Venezuela Boundary Commission.)



MR. W. H. D. HAGGARD.
(England's new Minister at Caracas, Venezuela.)



HON. FRANCIS B. LOOMIS, OF OHIO,
U. S. Minister to Venezuela.

York State Forest Preserve Board purchases a tract of 25,000 acres of forest land....The Virginia Democratic State Convention meets in Roanoke.

August 18.—Iowa Republicans nominate Leslie M. Shaw for governor.

August 19.—The "Middle-of-the-Road" Populists of Iowa nominate Charles A. Lloyd for governor.

NOMINATIONS AND APPOINTMENTS BY THE PRESIDENT.

July 22.—Rear Admiral John G. Walker, U. S. N., Capt. Oberlin M. Carter, Corps of Engineers, U. S. A., and Prof. Lewis M. Haupt, of Pennsylvania, members of the Nicaragua Canal Commission.

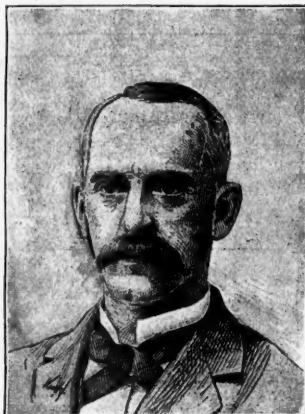
July 26.—Robert J. Tracewell, of Indiana, Comptroller of the Treasury.

August 12.—Ethan Allen Hitchcock, of Missouri, Minister to Russia.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

July 24.—The lower house of the Prussian Diet rejects the law-of-association bill by a majority of four votes, and the Diet is dissolved.

July 26.—The French Cabinet decides that the government will not be represented at the unveiling of the national monument at Sedan to the memory of the soldiers who fell there in the Franco-Prussian war.. In the British House of Commons a motion re-



HON. LESLIE M. SHAW, OF IOWA.
(Republican nominee for governor.)

flecting on the South Africa Committee is defeated by a vote of 304 to 77.

July 27.—In the Supply Committee of the British House of Commons a supplementary naval estimate of £500,000 for the construction of four armored cruisers is announced.

July 31.—Captain-General Weyler announces that he will grant amnesty to 1,500 Cuban exiles.

August 1.—From 12,000 to 15,000 natives are under arms in India; the government orders the Reserve Brigade to assemble.

August 3.—The Portuguese Government adopts stringent measures to repress agitation against the proposed financial legislation.

August 5.—The Spanish Government decides on certain modifications of the customs reforms proposed for Cuba.

August 6.—The British Parliament is prorogued until October 23.

August 8.—Señor Canovas del Castillo, Premier of Spain, is assassinated at Santa Agueda by an Italian anarchist.

August 9.—The resignation of the Chilean Cabinet is announced.

August 11.—Eighteen Portuguese army officers are arrested in Oporto, and martial law is proclaimed there.

August 16.—The assassin of Señor Canovas is sentenced to death by court-martial.

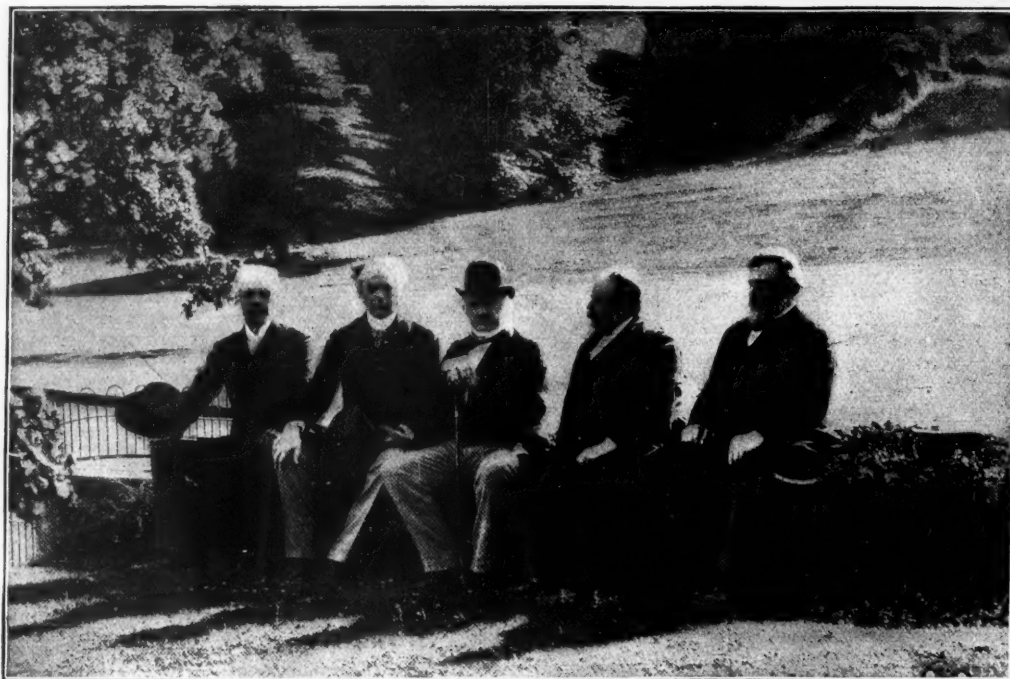
August 18.—A bomb explosion in Paris reveals a supposed attempt to kill President Faure; three bombs explode in Constantinople on the same day.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

July 24.—The Japanese Government agrees to submit the dispute concerning emigration to Hawaii to arbitration.

July 26.—The peace preliminaries drafted by the powers are presented by the ambassadors to the peace conference at Constantinople.

July 28.—The council of the Greater Republic of Central America decides that W. L. Merry, recently ap-



Sir Louis Davies.
Sir Wilfrid Laurier.

Mr. Gladstone.

Mr. G. H. Reid.

Mr. R. J. Seddon.

MR. GLADSTONE AND COLONIAL MINISTERS AT HAWARDEN.

pointed United States Minister to Costa Rica, Nicaragua, and Salvador, is *persona non grata*.

July 30.—Great Britain notifies Germany and Belgium that commercial treaties will be abrogated.

July 31.—A new commercial treaty between Great Britain and Germany is proposed.

August 2.—Lord Salisbury offers explanations of the delays in peace negotiations between Turkey and Greece in the House of Lords.

August 6.—The governments of Turkey and Persia send troops to the scenes of frontier outbreaks.

August 7.—The International Arbitration Conference is opened in Brussels....The Emperor and Empress of Germany are welcomed at Cronstadt, Russia, by the czar and czarina.

August 9.—Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria is the guest of the sultan at the Yildiz Kiosk.

August 12.—Diplomatic relations between Austria and Bulgaria are severed because of the refusal of Premier Stoiloff, of Bulgaria, to apologize for an insulting letter.

INDUSTRIAL, COMMERCIAL, AND FINANCIAL DOINGS.

July 23.—Judges of the United States Courts in Maryland hand down decisions favorable to the receivers of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad in suits brought by stockholders.

July 29.—The New York City loan of \$10,000,000 3½-per-cent. gold bonds is largely overbid....Decrees of

sale of the Union Pacific Railroad under foreclosure are entered at Omaha.

July 30.—The Buffalo Refining Company makes an assignment.

August 2.—All departments of the Cleveland rolling-mills open, and about 2,000 men are put at work....Laborers on Louisiana sugar plantations receive large advances in wages in consequence of the passage of the tariff bill....The Glucose Sugar Refining Company, capitalized at \$40,000,000, is incorporated in New Jersey.



SIGNOR GUGLIELMO MARCONI.
(Who is making interesting experiments in telegraphy without wires.)

....Announcement is made of the placing of contracts for the delivery in England of 1,000 tons of aluminium of American manufacture.

August 4.—Resumption of work in Birmingham (Ala.) rolling-mills gives employment to 2,200 men.

August 16.—Most of the Fall River (Mass.) cotton mills resume on full time.

August 17.—It is announced that the Johnson Steel Company of Cleveland has received orders for 20,000 tons of steel rails to be used on electric roads in Ireland.... The annual meeting of the American Bankers' Association opens in Detroit.

August 18.—S. R. Callaway is elected president of the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern Railroad, to succeed the late General Caldwell....Cash wheat passes the dollar mark in New York City....A large auction sale of wool takes place on the New York Exchange....Bar silver is quoted at 51½¢.

August 19.—It is announced that the business of Steinway & Sons, piano manufacturers, has been sold to an English syndicate for \$5,000,000....The coal-mine operators meet and form an organization with the object of ending the strike.

August 20.—Cash wheat reaches \$1.06 in New York City; September passes the dollar mark; wheat is sold for \$1 in Minneapolis.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

July 21.—The National Gallery of British Art, given by Mr. Henry Tate, is opened.



DR. S. A. ANDREE.

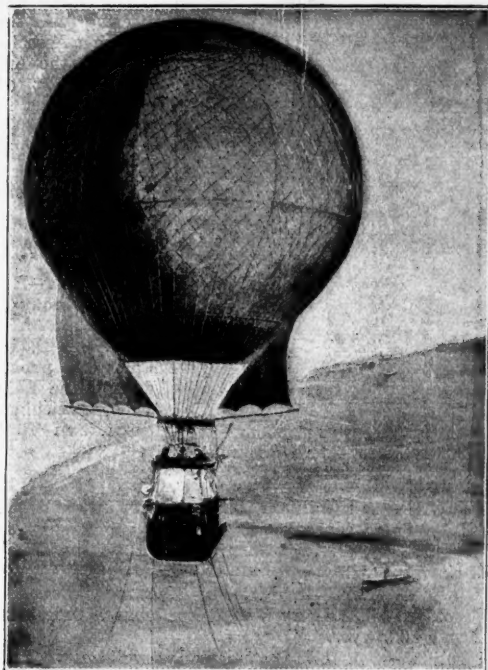
(The fate of whose attempt to reach the north pole by balloon is awaited with great concern.)

July 22.—The Logan monument is dedicated in Chicago....Dr. E. Benjamin Andrews resigns the presidency of Brown University.

July 23.—Prof. William Libbey, of Princeton University, scales the famous "Mesa Encantada" in New Mexico.

July 25.—The bicycle corps of the Twenty-fifth United States Infantry completes a ride of 1,900 miles, from Fort Missoula, Mont., to St. Louis, in 40 days.

July 28.—A severe earthquake occurs in the valley of the Arno, Italy.



DEPARTURE OF ANDREE'S BALLOON, THE "EAGLE," FROM SPITZBERGEN.

July 31.—Charles W. Spalding, ex-treasurer of Illinois State University, is found guilty of embezzlement.

August 2.—Twenty-four members of the faculty of Brown University sign a protest against the action of the corporation in the case of President Andrews.

August 4.—The League of American Wheelmen meets in Philadelphia.

August 5.—A Tennyson Memorial Beacon, in the form of an Ionic cross, is unveiled on the Freshwater Downs, Isle of Wight.

August 6.—An explosion in a cartridge depot at Rustchuck, Bulgaria, kills 130 persons, mostly children, and injures 170 others.

August 7.—A submarine torpedo-boat called the *Plunger*, designed for the United States Navy, is launched at Baltimore.

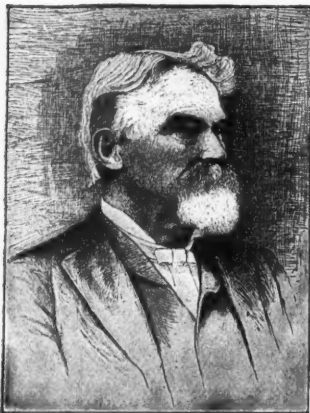
August 9.—The American Association for the Advancement of Science begins its sessions in Detroit.

August 11.—The United States torpedo-boat *Dupont*, on her official trial trips, makes an average speed of 28.58 knots an hour.

August 12.—The Grand Hotel at Baden, near Zurich, Switzerland, is burned.

August 15.—Prince Henri of Orleans and the Count of Turin fight a duel with swords at Paris.

August 18.—The town of Ostrow, in the province of Seidlöe, Russia, is burned, and 4,000 people rendered homeless....Associate Justice Field, of the United States Supreme Court, surpasses in length of service on the bench any of his predecessors.



THE LATE JAMES R. DOOLITTLE,
Ex-Senator from Wisconsin.

July 23.—Rev. Peter Havermans, of Troy, N. Y., 91.

July 23.—Gen. William McKinney, of Maryland, 68.

July 24.—Clarence Armstrong Seward, eminent New York lawyer, 69....Ex-Congressman Harrison Kelley, of Kansas, 61.

July 25.—Rev. Dr. Malcolm MacGregor Dana, of Brooklyn, 55....Henry Van Dyke Johns, a prominent Maryland lawyer.

July 26.—Col. John B. Anderson, a well-known Kansas railroad man, 80.

July 27.—Ex-United States Senator James Rood Doolittle, of Wisconsin, 82....Henry James, a wealthy merchant and financier of Baltimore, 76.

July 28.—Judge William L. Dayton, of the New Jersey Court of Errors and Appeals, 58.

July 30.—The Rev. Dr. Stephen H. Camp, of Brooklyn, N. Y., 60.

July 31.—Charles S. Brainard, a well-known music publisher of Cleveland and Chicago, 58.

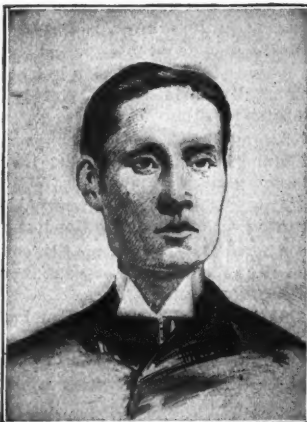
August 1.—Thos. Hillhouse, New York financier, 81.

August 2.—Marie Seebach, illustrious German actress, 63.. Lieut. Michael Moore, veteran of the War of 1812, 79.

August 3.—Nelson Dingley, Sr., of Lewiston, Maine, 88.

August 4.—Prof. Frederick De Forest Allen, of Harvard University, 53.

August 5.—Dr. James Hammond Trumbull, of Hartford, Conn., 76.



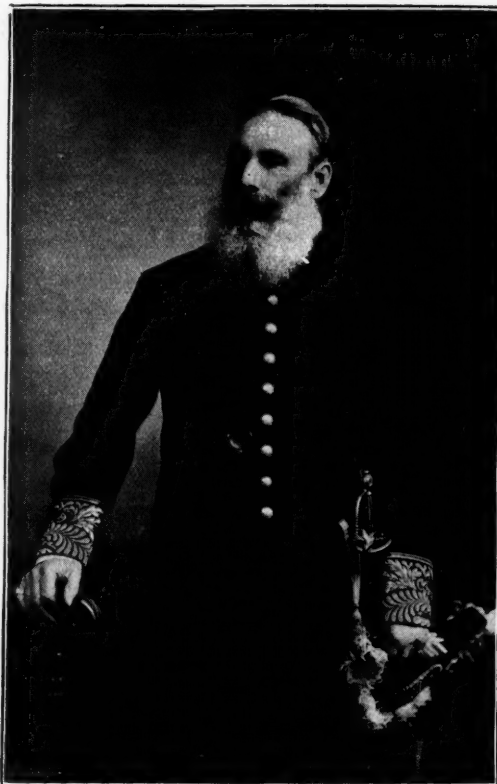
THE LATE POM KWANG SOH.
(Who was once Korean Minister to the United States.)

August 18.—The meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science opens in Toronto, Ont.

August 19.—The Medical Congress opens its sessions in Moscow.

OBITUARY.

July 21.—Rt. Hon. Anthony J. Mundella, M.P., 72....Gen. D. W. Caldwell, president of the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern Railroad, 67.



THE LATE A. J. MUNDELLA, ESQ., M.P.

August 8.—Premier Canovas del Castillo of Spain, 69....William Lamb Picknell, the Boston landscape artist, 44.

August 9.—Ex-Justice Samuel McGowan, of South Carolina, 78.

August 10.—Rt. Rev. William Walsham How, D.D., Bishop of Wakefield, Eng., 74.

August 11.—James Crawford Embry, Bishop of the African M. E. Church in South Carolina, 63.

August 12.—Sir Isaac Holden, English inventor and manufacturer, 90....Pom Kwang Soh, president of the Privy Council of Corea, 48....Frederick D. Stone, librarian of the Pennsylvania Historical Society, 56.

August 13.—Sam Chester Reid, soldier, author, and politician, 79.

August 14.—United States Senator James Z. George, of Mississippi, 71.

August 15.—Col. James R. Haskell, inventor of the multi charge gun, 65.

August 16.—Gen. David G. Swaim, U. S. A., retired, 63....Johnson M. Mundy, a well-known American sculptor, 64....Charles Compton, English actor.

August 17.—Rev. Dr. William Rice, of Springfield, Mass., 78.

August 19.—Prof. John Barton Foster, formerly of Colby University, Maine, 75....Col. Elmer Otis, U. S. A., retired, 65.

August 20.—Bishop Perry Hopkins, of the African Methodist Episcopal Church, 75.

CURRENT HISTORY IN CARTOONS.



RETURN OF THE BIRD OF PROSPERITY.
From the *Herald* (New York).

THE cartoonists this month are keenly responsive to the improved business situation, and their drawings have a tendency to deal with such matters as the high price that farmers are getting for their wheat, the rush to the Klondyke gold-fields, and the extraordinary divergence in the market ratio of gold and silver. Mr. Bush, in the cartoon reproduced on this page, takes a considerable liberty with the story of Noah and the ark by representing the American eagle with some heads of wheat as the bird returning with a good message. The cartoonist of the *Chicago Times-Herald* points a pertinent contrast between the farmer, with his good crop of high-priced wheat, and the prospector struggling toilsomely to get over the Chilcoot Pass on the road to the Klondyke. This particular farmer is rejoicing in eighty-four-cent wheat. The picture was drawn only a few days ago; but since then the margin of advance



POSSIBLE EFFECT OF THE GOLD FINDS ON THE PLATFORM OF 1900.
From the *Times-Herald* (Chicago).



WHY SHOULD I GO TO THE KLONDYKE?

From the *Times-Herald* (Chicago).

WHY DIDN'T I STAY AT HOME?

in the value of this year's American wheat crop is worth more than all the gold that will be brought out of the Klondyke region for a good many years to come.

The five cartoons that follow the one to which we have just referred are all reproduced from drawings made by Mr. R. C. Bowman, of the *Minneapolis Daily Tribune*. This western work is virile and strong

and indicates much versatility, as well as a keen sense of humor. Mr. Bowman's picture of life as it will be in Dawson City, the capital of the Klondyke, next winter, has very likely served as a timely warning to keep more than one young Minneapolitan from making too impulsive a start for the diggings. The New York mayoralty campaign seems to Mr. Bowman—looking this



DON'T BE IN A HURRY TO GO TO ALASKA.

There's any number of people up there now who can't afford to eat anything but snow.—From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).



CHILLY PROSPECTS.

Richard Croker and Tammany will search for the mayoralty of Greater New York.—From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).

way through the clear atmosphere of the Northwest—to afford a very gloomy prospect to the Tammany people, and he represents Mr. Croker and the tiger as toiling on a veritable Klondyke trail of politics, which is synonymous for the hardest possible road to travel. Mr. Bowman's cartoon dealing with Mr. Bryan and the silver question needs no interpretation, and indeed it is so

clever that Mr. Bryan himself (who happens to like this department of the *REVIEW*) will doubtless thank us for reproducing it. On the next page Mr. Bowman reminds us in two very effective cartoons of President McKinley's dealings with his friends the office-seekers. One of them has reference to the famous order by which Mr. McKinley has so greatly extended the scope of the



SUNSTRUCK.

W. J. Bryan still persists in carrying flowers to the dead Popocrat donk. Won't some one hand him a spade?
From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).

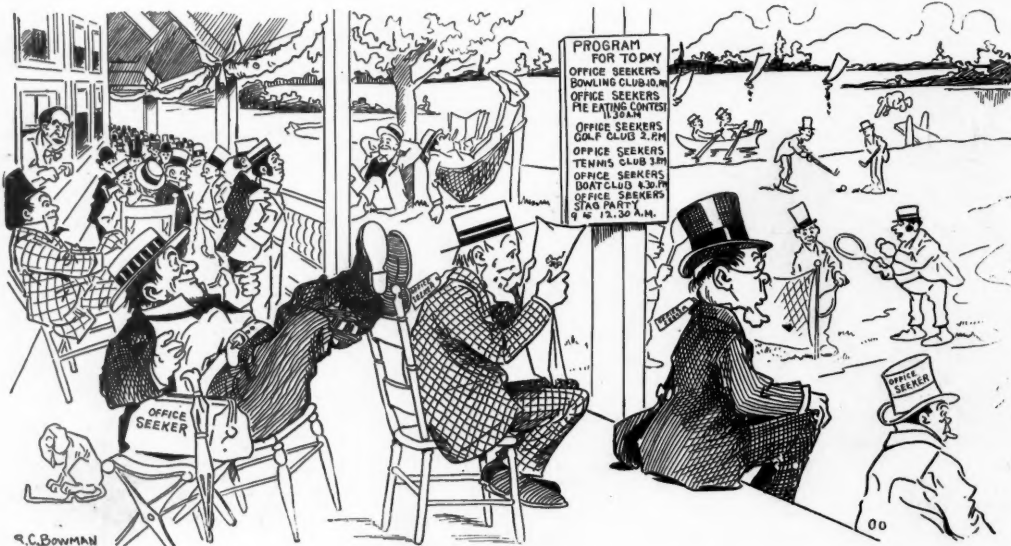


CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

MCKINLEY: "Boys, you might as well go look for other work. Uncle Sam is a little particular in employing help."
From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).

merit system, protecting efficient employees of the Government from arbitrary discharge. The other one gives us a glimpse of life at the Lake Champlain Hotel, where the President has been trying to get some vacation rest, and where in spite of everything a good many persistent office-seekers are said to have followed him. The Sherman letter to Lord Salisbury on the seal question has

touched the sensibilities of our English friends, as shown by two small cartoons on the opposite page, one from *Punch* and the other from the *Westminster Gazette*. Mr. Davenport, of the *Journal*, who takes a keen interest in New York politics, represents Mr. Platt as lying in wait while the Seth Low procession goes by. The cartoonist of *Kladderadatsch*, in Ger-



AT LAKE CHAMPLAIN.

The office-seekers are spending a few weeks in the country for their health(?).—From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).

many, evidently supposes that Uncle Sam is exerting himself desperately to obtain Hawaii, while the better-informed Chicago *Times-Herald* man represents that same Uncle Sam as taking a summer-day nap with the Hawaii treaty over his face to keep off the flies. The Chicago *Record* notes the fact that Mr. Debs has encountered in West Virginia an old Illinois acquaintance of his. Mr. Debs, who has been helping to engineer the coal strike, complains that the courts are enjoining him off the face of the earth. The two following pages contain clever cartoons from foreign sources on the Turkish situation and English questions.



A FANCY PORTRAIT—SHERMAN, THE POLITE LETTER-WRITER.
From *Punch* (London).



UNDISTURBED.
From the *Times-Herald* (Chicago).



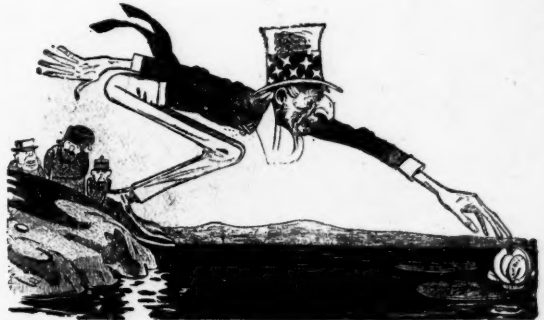
MR. DEBS (meets an acquaintance): "Well, this seems like old times."—From the *Record* (Chicago).



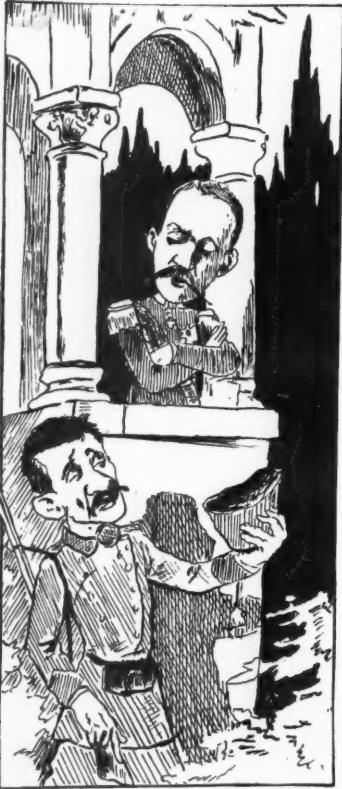
DANCING ON THE LION'S TAIL—HOW LONG WILL HE STAND IT?
From the *Westminster Gazette* (London).



AND THE PROCESSION IS STILL GOING BY.
From the *Journal* (New York).



A DOUBTFUL MATTER: HE TRUSTS TO HIS LONG FINGERS—WILL HE GET IT?
From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).



TURKISH SOLDIER: "Your majesty, a poor traveler who has been obliged to fight his way through from Constantinople to Athens asks for a small war indemnity."
KING GEORGE: "You must give your gun up first."

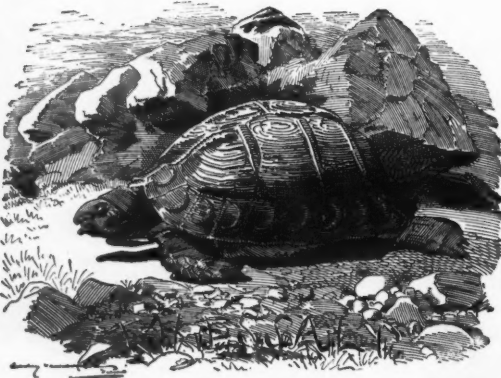
SOLDIER: "But, your majesty, how shall such a poor traveler fight successfully if he gives up his weapon?"—From *Humoristische Blätter* (Germany).



THE EASTERN SITUATION—THEY DARE NOT FIRE FOR FEAR OF THE FALLING PIECES.
 From *Moonshine* (London).



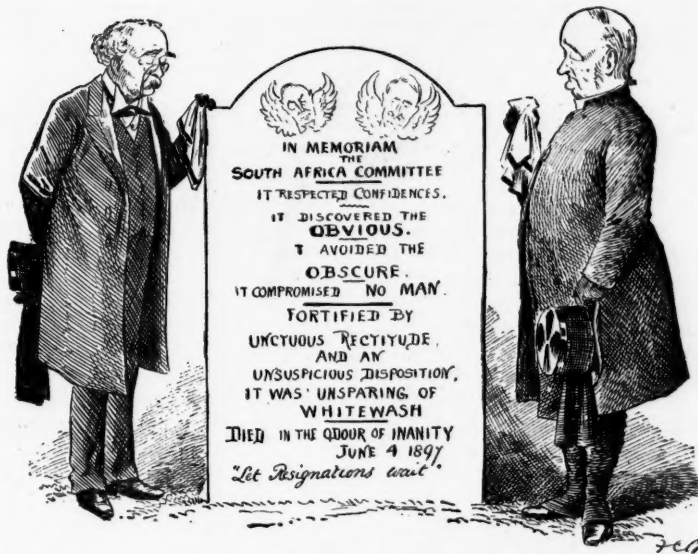
THE TURKEY-BUZZARD IN THE BRIAR-PATCH.
 They are all agreed he must come out, but who is to go in and fetch him?—From the *Westminster Budget*. (London).



THE TURKISH TORTOISE.
 T. T. (to himself): "They may say what they like—I'm not going to be hurried!"—From *Punch* (London).



NO HURRY.
 THE SULTAN: "Dear! dear! How they do dawdle! Such a time in coming to a decision!"—From *Punch* (London).



THE GRAVE OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN COMMITTEE.
From the *Westminster Budget* (London).



UNREST IN INDIA.

SHADE OF LORD LAWRENCE: "I don't like the look of him. Hope they understand him better than they did in my time."
From *Punch* (London).



THE "TRICKSY SPIRIT."

(Ferdinand, Lord Salisbury. Ariel, Rt. Hon. J. Chamberlain.)
FERDINAND (Lord Salisbury): "Where should this music be?... I have followed it, or it hath drawn me—rather."
Act 1, Sc. 2.

From *Punch* (London).

THE NICARAGUA CANAL COMMISSION—A TRIO OF AMERICAN ENGINEERS.

[The new board of commissioners appointed by President McKinley, under Congressional authority, to make a final investigation and report upon the Nicaragua Canal route and upon all the engineering and financial aspects of interoceanic transit across Central America, consists of three eminent and successful engineers, one of them taken from civil life, one from the army, and one from the navy. The naval representative of the board is Rear Admiral Walker, one of the most typical Americans of our half century. The army is represented by Captain Carter, whose high qualities and remarkable proficiency are a just source of pride to the army engineering corps. The civilian member of the board is Professor Haupt, of Philadelphia, whose especial fitness becomes evident enough when the facts are understood. We are glad to present herewith some timely accounts of the personal and professional careers of these three praiseworthy servants of the American Government and the American public. At a preliminary session of the board in New York the other day Admiral Walker was chosen chairman by his colleagues.—EDITOR.]

I.—LEWIS MUHLENBURG HAUPT, A.M., C.F.

BY HENRY WYSHAM LANIER.

IT is surely not an exaggeration to say that no other single factor has so largely determined the directions of our national development as the railroad—using that word in a broad sense to include all the improved modern methods of transportation. The most casual comparison of the end of the nineteenth century with its beginning reveals changes in our physical, social, and mental conditions so diverse and fundamental as to make one often realize with something of a shock the truism that we are after all much the same sort of human beings as our great-grandfathers; yet the causes of these many radical divergences from our former lines of evolution can in almost every case be traced either directly to the wonderful increase of transportation facilities which has distinguished the last half century or to some logical sequence of that increase.

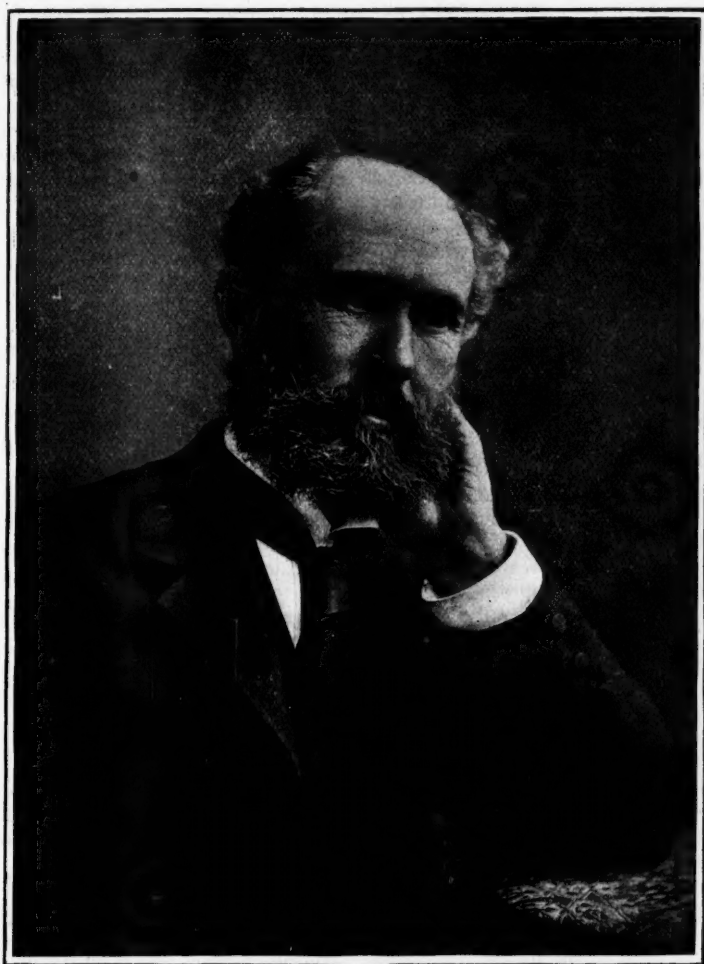
SOME CHANGES WROUGHT BY THE RAILROAD.

Instances which bear out this statement might be multiplied without end, but the matter is really so self-evident that corroborative testimony will occur to all. Perhaps as striking evidence as any may be found by comparing the present feeling between the North and the South with that which manifested itself from 1830 to 1860—before the war-memories and before the Southern railroads had developed to any extent. It is at once cheap and unprofitable to reconstruct history on a foundation of "might-have-beens," and those who look upon the civil war as a predestined, foreordained, and therefore inevitable

infliction, would doubtless challenge peremptorily the assertion that it might have been averted by any conceivable set of conditions; but it is only too plain to-day that much of the rancorous bitterness and many of the inconceivably ludicrous misapprehensions then current among the partisans of both sides could have existed only between totally isolated sections. It would be beyond the limits of imagination nowadays, with the present regular currents of travel both ways and with the network of intricate commercial bonds which the railroad has woven, to fancy a Southerner of intelligence who could honestly be convinced that the New England States were peopled with "cowardly shopkeepers," and who could allow his children to grow up in the belief that horns, hoofs, and tail were part of the heritage of every one dwelling north of Mason and Dixon's line; or to fancy that the Northern man in turn could picture Dixie as a country where the landscapes consisted of a succession of burly drunkards cracking long whips over the backs of trembling slaves. If these things did not make the war possible, they certainly made it easy.

THE RAILROAD A FORCE FOR UNIVERSAL PEACE.

In the very nature of the case no other cause can so conduce to peace and unity, national or international, as the extension of mutual knowledge and sympathy consequent upon closer acquaintance; and one wonders if the peace societies might not effect a greater furtherance of their most estimable object by attempting to pro-



PROF. LEWIS M. HAUPT.

mote travel and commerce than by memorializing and pamphletizing and sermonizing! In fact, they would be capable of a peculiar efficiency along these lines, for the history of American railroads contains too large a proportion of stock-jobbery and "wreckages" to afford unmixed pleasure to the philanthropist. It would be difficult to compute even approximately, but it is apparent enough how greatly the progress of many parts of our country has been impeded through the "operations" of railroad magnates who have used the roads as ladders for their personal fortunes, caring little about the fate of the instruments when they had served their turn. The fact that so many of these luckless enterprises have

subsequently revived and become actually prosperous is sufficient testimony as to the vitality of their fundamental idea.

A TYPE OF THE TRUE AMERICAN.

If, then, this amorphous, monstrous thing called transportation is so noteworthy, it might be foreseen that the human beings who set it in motion and control it possess more than an ordinary interest. Indeed, the civil engineer seems to me typical of the highest Americanism in many ways. He is forever making the best of newnesses and roughnesses and crudities, while planning something better to take their place; one hour he is occupied with elusive problems of big

financiering and indeterminate estimates of probable travel and possible commercial development—the next he may be running a compound curve between two fixed tangents and experiencing an exquisite satisfaction as his vertical hair bisects the rod and his vernier reads absolutely true. What would be the ideal line in some cases would be absolutely ruinous in others, and all the minutiae of location must be considered with an omnipresent realization of what the future possibilities of this particular road may be, as well as what are the financial possibilities of its promoters. The cheapest line in some regions would be dear indeed, whereas in unsettled and barren districts the first cost must usually be minimized. There cannot be many professions which combine such large and comprehensive views with such infinitesimal niceties of detail.

AN ENGINEER'S RESPONSIBILITIES.

Moreover—and this is perhaps the most important point of all—the conscientious engineer accepts without any fuss or parade responsibilities which a man of any experience realizes only too vividly, but which are so little appreciated by the rest of the world, including generally his own employers, that he is forced to depend entirely on his own sense of duty and his own pride in his work to guard against carelessness or slackness. His situation is often very peculiar. The promoters and financiers who are backing the scheme which engages his attention are almost invariably quite ignorant of the work it is his business to perform; if he is lazy and indisposed to try to better an obvious route by much physical and mental labor, they will accept his statements unquestioningly, and no one but himself will ever be the wiser; moreover, he starts out with the knowledge that there is one perfect route, to which he cannot hope to attain, his utmost efforts serving merely to make the approximation a trifle closer; and, finally, even when the road is finished no one can put his hand on any particular spot, or even section, and declare authoritatively that there the engineer in charge made a mistake. Other men may think so, and even say so, but at worst the culprit has but to make a stout plea of "differences in expert opinion," adding that his knowledge of possibilities was necessarily more complete than any outsider's, or to dismiss the whole matter as an instance of "professional jealousy." These two shibboleths have carried, and will still carry, many an incompetent through a tight place. Should the line be unsuccessful, the responsibility can easily be shifted to the management; should there be a terrible accident, the chances are ten to one that his fault will be obscured or concealed altogether—in a word,

the civil engineer is a law unto himself, and only those who have experienced it know what that means. Any man who can in the face of such odds go quietly on, giving that unappreciated extra care and exertion, that "utmost" of himself whose existence only himself suspects, for the mere sake of the thing, must needs develop a sturdy self-reliance of many sorts. "Fame" is the best of pacemakers and policemen combined, and if fame be indeed "the space one occupies in the biographical dictionaries," the civil engineer gets even less in proportion to his work than the average toiler, for the most remarkable part of his exploits never gets into print.

But always keeping this in mind, let us not fall into the common error of adopting a converse. A tremendous amount of the best work is done by unknown men—but it by no means follows that those who have achieved eminence are incapable. In general the man with a name has had not only the capacities of his less "successful" competitor, but something in addition. Misfit reputations are common, but by no means the rule; and they are more apt to be too small than too large for the wearer. The subject of this sketch, Prof. Lewis M. Haupt, is a very representative example of the successful American engineer, and there is consequently a broader interest than the sufficient biographical one in tracing his career.

PROFESSOR HAUPT'S ANCESTRY.

To begin at the beginning in this case is to begin some time before Professor Haupt ever saw a railroad—or anything else. The first members of his family in this country, who settled in Bucks County, Pa., all exhibited a characteristic turn for mechanics and a keen interest in labor-saving manufacturing devices. His father, Col. Herman Haupt, has been for half a century one of the best-known civil engineers and "railroad men" in this country. Graduating at West Point in 1835, he was successively assistant engineer of public works in Pennsylvania; professor of mathematics and engineering in Pennsylvania College, Gettysburg; chief engineer of the Philadelphia & Columbia Railroad and then of the Hoosac Tunnel; chief of the bureau of United States military railroads all through the civil war, the onerous duties of which position he discharged in such a manner as to greatly enhance his previous reputation; general manager at one time of the Piedmont Air Line, at another of the Northern Pacific; and for over twenty years in charge of the Tidewater Pipe Line, where he has revolutionized the methods of transporting oil, bringing about a great increase of efficiency. To fully appreciate the scope of his mental activ-

ities, it is necessary to add that he is the author of several valuable works on bridge construction and the improvement of rivers, and that he has invented a drilling-engine for which the Royal Polytechnic Society of Great Britain awarded him their highest prize.

FIRST ENGINEERING WORK.

His son's career was influenced by him in many ways. Besides an inherited tendency toward the things which had occupied his father's life, Lewis owed to him the reinforced impulse which came from constant association and the actual start in his profession. The boy's education had been greatly interrupted, his father's frequent change of location causing a consequent change in his school, until in ten years he had been under fully a dozen different instructors. Even this broken study, however, proved too much for his health. At the age of fourteen he was a veritable dwarf, four feet nine inches high, and so delicate that the doctors declared his only chance to lie in an immediate abandonment of school-work for some outdoor life. Colonel Haupt had then been for two years in charge of the great Hoosac Tunnel—whose four and three-quarters miles of length make it still the greatest in the United States—and it was only natural that the obvious opportunity thus offered should have been taken. Lewis became officially level-rodman, and in reality also amanuensis and private draughtsman to his father. It was not easy for a weak boy of fourteen, this field work on the Hoosac and on the Troy & Greenfield road. The duties of a level-rodman in rough country are arduous, and this section is not only rough, but precipitous, the survey in places running along a rocky hillside where a false step meant a two-hundred-foot drop. The boy's lack of stature, too, was greatly against him; he could not reach the target on his rod without maneuvering, which was often complicated by the precarious footing. Professor Haupt recalls this part of his experiences with a good deal of humor, and relates how the rest of the party used to laugh at the contrast between his diminutive self and his companion in misery, Russell Sage, Jr., whose six feet and some inches looked particularly gawky by comparison. It was the making of him physically, however. While he did not become a son of Anak, he got a start in the right direction, which has enabled him to stand his share of physical hardship ever since—and he became from the first day an engineer.

For several years he regularly put in his summers in this way, adopting a more academic course of study in cold weather, and after some hard work at the Lawrence Scientific School he

received an appointment from President Lincoln in 1863 as a West Point cadet. His strong natural bent and experiences in the field told here also, and after the usual four years of work, he graduated in the Engineer Corps.

SURVEYING ON LAKE SUPERIOR.

His first taste of work as a military engineer was on the Great Lakes, where his party was engaged in surveying, with headquarters at Detroit, and during the summer he had ample opportunity to add to his theoretical attainments some practical knowledge of shore-line and off-shore hydrography along the borders of Lake Superior. Winter comes early in this region and nautical work becomes impossible before the autumn is well under way, so his party put their best foot foremost and managed to finish the section allotted to them well in advance of the usual time for retreat. Returning jubilantly, they were met by the government vessel and informed that their achievement was so much appreciated that they were to have another chance to exhibit their mettle at once; so back they turned to St. Mary's River and the Neebish Rapids. And that little experience is worth recording, because it is symbolic of much of the life of the engineer, as well as of the government employee. However, one of the first things thus taught is what Ibsen calls "a modest acquiescence in the actual," which American camp-slang has long rendered by the declaration that "it's all in the day's work;" so the disappointed party attacked the Neebish Rapids, and probably developed as much enthusiasm and speed as before.

"RECONSTRUCTION" IN TEXAS.

Shortly after this young Haupt was transferred to Texas, where he was placed in charge of road construction and river improvements in the Fifth Military District. Most of Texas was then a howling wilderness, and upon his arrival at Houston he came within range of the horrific tales concerning bands of merciless desperadoes which are still meted out to the "tenderfoot" by Western humorists, but which had far more basis of probability three years after the war, although the chief danger even then was from stray gangs of "Greasers," who were both infrequent and cowardly. The railroad was then completed only as far as Brenham and a stage carried the passengers the remaining eighty miles to Austin. When his party reached Brenham they found that the places in this conveyance had to be engaged for days or even weeks beforehand; but by the merest accident they ran against a native who was the proud possessor of an ancient and bone-breaking hack, in which he offered to convey them, minus their

baggage, for fifteen dollars a head; and in this remarkable vehicle, drawn by one large white mule and one small yellow one, they finally reached their destination without mishap. The work here was miscellaneous in the extreme, ranging from road-building to conciliating the fair Texans, who at first refused to have the slightest communication with these representatives of the invaders; but the social ostracism was overcome with the engineering difficulties, and the energetic young officers became prime favorites.

Lieutenant Haupt's principal work during this period was done on the Rio Grande at Fort Brown. The river was particularly unmanageable just here, and its rapid encroachments threatened to undermine a lagoon upon which the settlement depended for its water-supply. Those in charge had been bringing in sheet-piling from a great distance, at a fabulous expense, in order to protect the bank, but Haupt, after a brief study of the conditions, devised a system of inexpensive chaparral jetties, and in a short while had entirely changed the current so that it scoured on the opposite side. It was quite a triumph for the young engineer, and it doubtless turned his attention still more to the questions of water transportation, including the difficult problems connected with the protection of channels and harbors.

LIEUTENANT HAUPT RESIGNS FROM THE ARMY.

After a little over a year of this, Lieutenant Haupt took a step which materially changed his future career. Congress was then undergoing a spasm of economy and had passed a law, with the idea of reducing engineering expenses, which seemed to cut off all chances of promotion; so Haupt, after careful weighing of pros and cons, resigned from the service and returned to Pennsylvania. He had spent some three years in Philadelphia as topographical engineer at Fairmount Park, having also charge of the location and construction of roads, when the opportunity to serve Uncle Sam in a very different capacity presented itself, and he became assistant examiner in the Engineering Department of the Patent Office. The work here was eminently to his liking, and the prospects for advancement were so bright that he hesitated a long time about accepting another honor which came to him just as he had become well established in Washington. This was an offer of the chair of civil engineering in the University of Pennsylvania, a remarkable enough position for a man still under thirty who had passed such a large proportion of his life away from the academical and theoretical branches of his profession, and he accepted it rather with the idea of brushing up his mathematics and theory

preparatory to starting out independently. Professor Haupt believes to-day, in looking back upon his career, that he would have been wiser, as far as concerns his personal fortunes, to continue in his labors in the Patent Office, but in view of his record for the last two decades it may be doubted if he could have found any other method than the one adopted for so widely extending his influence. However this may be, he was for twenty years identified with this department in his university, and only resigned four years ago because of his special interest in the problems of water transportation.

This university record of Professor Haupt's is one of which any man might well feel proud. Not only has he been able to arouse the interest and enthusiasm of the young men with whom he has come into contact, but his name has been connected with much outside work that is truly notable during the same period. The Government has shown its appreciation of his abilities by appointing him to superintend the surveys for range-lights on the Delaware River, in the Fourth Lighthouse District, and by enlisting his services as assistant in the Coast Survey dealing with the geodesy of Pennsylvania. At the time of the Paris Exposition he was one of the associate judges of the department of transportation, preparing the report on the railroad plant of that great exhibition, and he has made a name for himself in a succession of important legal controversies as an engineering expert peculiarly versed in the practice and theory of his profession.

AN INGENIOUS INVENTION.

About ten years ago Professor Haupt finally elaborated an idea which had for a long time engaged his attention and researches. One of the most arduous duties of government engineers is to keep the necessary depth of water in those harbors which tend to gradually shoal up from deposits or from shifting sand, and an enormous amount of money is spent each year in the construction of jetties to preserve the channels. After a careful and detailed study of nearly every important harbor in the world, Professor Haupt managed to deduce from the conditions met with certain laws of currents and deposits, which he found by actual tests were invariably co-existent with a particular very common conformation. Using these laws as a foundation, he evolved a plan for a single jetty of a peculiar shape, part of its length being on a curve whose concave side faced the channel, to replace the two straight walls in common use. Not only did this ingenious contrivance do away with a great deal of useless masonry—it acted also as an automatic readjuster of depth, the current setting up a scour-

ing motion along the curved face which preserves a deep channel there.

Every one not hopelessly "citified" has noticed how a stream invariably cuts out its bed on the inner side of a curve, and no small boy who has fished along the banks of a brook would be at a loss for a moment to spot the deep holes in such a locality. This principle, although a very minor part of Professor Haupt's idea, is exactly the one made use of. This novel contrivance took the American Philosophical Society's "Magellanic Premium" in 1887, but it has not yet had a fair trial in actual work. The only time it was adopted it succeeded beyond all expectations, speedily producing double the former depth of water, but the short-sighted backers of the scheme became alarmed at the expense of completion and left the breakwater half finished, with the natural result of causing a reversion to the old conditions in the harbor. The inventor is very philosophical about the matter, although it is evidently one close to his heart. "Everything comes to him who waits," he quotes. Certainly he is himself far too practical and too well versed in the actualities of his profession to allow himself to be misled by fallacious theories. It seems to be merely a case of the proverbial slowness with which any invention based on hitherto undetected or unformulated natural laws makes headway, and time only can show if this very beautiful and convincing chain of reasoning, in which its originator himself believes so thoroughly, is correct.

THE NEW JERSEY CANAL PROJECT.

As stated above, the cause of Professor Haupt's severance of his university ties was his desire to devote himself more exclusively to canal work and water transportation, and it is in this branch of engineering, the prime importance of which was for a long time obscured by the sensational development of the railroad, that his most far-reaching achievements have been performed. When, three years ago, the project was agitated of a great coastwise canal through New Jersey to connect New York with Philadelphia—an extension of the idea contemplating a farther cut across the neck of Delaware in order to join Baltimore similarly with the Quaker City—Professor Haupt was placed in charge of the surveys as the ablest and best-posted engineer available. After two months of field-work and several more of draughting and estimating and calculating, he prepared a terse but luminous report, in which, after carefully presenting the arguments for the route chosen and estimates of cost for both a twenty-foot and a twenty-eight-foot channel, he strongly indorsed the scheme, showing that under the most adverse conditions a saving of 45 per

cent. in time between the two cities could be reasonably expected.

SOME STATISTICS ON WATERWAYS.

After pointing out that the tonnage "in sight" of the proposed waterway was nearly as great as that carried annually by the Suez Canal, the profits from which are said to pay for its initial cost every five years, he gave some striking statistics of the population and commerce affected and of the result of such expenditures elsewhere.

"It is stated by the French economists that the benefits conferred upon that republic by the expenditure of over seven hundred million dollars upon her system of free canals and waterways is equivalent to an annual return of 5 per cent. upon this enormous capital, and it was reported by the Committee on Commerce, United States Senate, in 1892, that the saving on transportation effected by the St. Mary's Canal was over one hundred million dollars in two years! The same report states 'the total expenditure for water improvements of the lakes has amounted to about thirty million dollars, or approximately to one-fifth of the annual saving in transportation!'"

This report caused much discussion and aroused great enthusiasm for the scheme, and although the unsettled financial conditions have so far delayed its farther progress, it was to be expected that the President, when arranging the membership of the Colombia-Cauca Arbitration Commission, which is to sum up once for all the much-discussed Nicaragua Canal plan, should have selected Professor Haupt as one of the members. The commission will make a thorough personal investigation of the proposed route, and their findings will be awaited with no little interest.

PROFESSOR HAUPT'S VIEWS ON THE NICARAGUA CANAL.

Concerning the actual route Professor Haupt can, of course, say nothing at present, but his views on the canal scheme itself are eminently broad and characteristic. He believes it unquestionably should and will be built. Its exact location and cost, while most necessary of determination, can in no way affect this general conclusion. Whether it costs a hundred million dollars more, as Senator Morgan declares it will, or a hundred and thirty-three million, as Colonel Ludlow has estimated, or even two hundred million, is in a broad view immaterial. It represents a colossal annual saving which the world of commerce has a right to expect and to demand, and of its profitability he himself has not the slightest doubt. The opposition to it which has been industriously fomented by some of the trans-continental railroads is peculiarly short-sighted on their part,

for the transportation experts agree as to the truth of the apparent paradox that water competition is decidedly beneficial instead of injurious to the railroads.

"Look over the stock market," suggests Professor Haupt, "and select the roads whose stock is away above par; in nearly every case you will find these lines compete with deep-water traffic;" and at the Deep Waterways Convention a few years ago a similar statement was made, to the effect that "railroads which are paying dividends are running in competition with water in every case."

The explanation of this is found in the facts that facilities increase commerce, that a large

local trade is stimulated by the canal, and that the railroad gets the bulk of the refined and manufactured products which go through the canal in their raw states.

As may be gathered from the brief account in the foregoing pages, the President seems to have made a well-nigh ideal appointment in placing Professor Haupt on the new commission, and it may confidently be expected that his conclusions will not only benefit that great project by their influence and authoritativeness, but that he will complete his Central American labors, as has been the case in every other post of responsibility he has held, with an enhanced reputation.

II.—REAR ADMIRAL JOHN G WALKER.

BY JAMES BARNES.

THERE are many men at present holding positions of importance in the army and navy about whose past records little is known by the general reading public, although their names have a most familiar appearance in print as they appear from time to time in the daily press. The generation born since the war have some knowledge, more or less accurate, of the doings and characters of the great leaders and popular heroes; but of the records and deeds of the young men who won their spurs in battle and have since attained distinction by a course of natural events and slow promotion in time of peace they know but little.

Rear Admiral John Grimes Walker, who was retired on March 20 of this year at the age of sixty-two, left the active service a distinguished man, hearty and vigorous in body, and, in the opinion of those who know, judged the best man to remain at the head of naval affairs. But by the law he has been retired, and all those left in the active list move up a peg in the Register.

Admiral Walker is of Scotch-Irish descent and was born in New Hampshire on March 20, 1835. He came of good old fighting stock, an ancestor of his having been one of the defenders of the town of Londonderry during the great Irish struggles. And his ancestors in this country were men of the same mold. His great-grandfather was a lieutenant in the Continental army, who served with bravery and distinction. Upon the death of his mother, young Walker went to Iowa to abide at the home of his uncle, Governor Grimes. He was appointed midshipman in the navy on October 5, 1850, and it was soon perceived that the young man had not made

a mistake in choosing his calling. During a long cruise in the old frigate *Portsmouth* in the Pacific he drew attention to himself by his alertness and strict attention to duty. Upon his return from the western waters he completed the course at the Naval Academy, and was promoted to passed midshipman. On June 20, 1856, he made a voyage in the *Falmouth* to Brazil, and afterward was transferred to the *St. Lawrence*, belonging to the South Atlantic squadron. He was promoted to be master on June 22, 1858, and the very next day received a second promotion to that of lieutenant.

A BRILLIANT WAR RECORD.

The navy just prior to the breaking out of the civil war was filled with young officers from both the Northern and the Southern States who were soon to have positions of great responsibility thrust upon them at very short notice; some were equal to the occasion and others most signally failed. Lieutenant Walker was among the first class, composed of the young men who were watched and commended by their superior officers for their ability and steadfastness, and who were soon placed in positions of importance. Upon the outbreak of the war Lieutenant Walker was stationed for a short time on board the steamer *Connecticut*, and from this vessel he was transferred to the gunboat *Winona*, and in her he took part in the passage of Forts Jackson and St. Philip, and later in the most important of all the captures of the Gulf squadron, the city of New Orleans. With the nine men next following on the active list to-day Walker was commissioned a lieutenant commander on July 16,

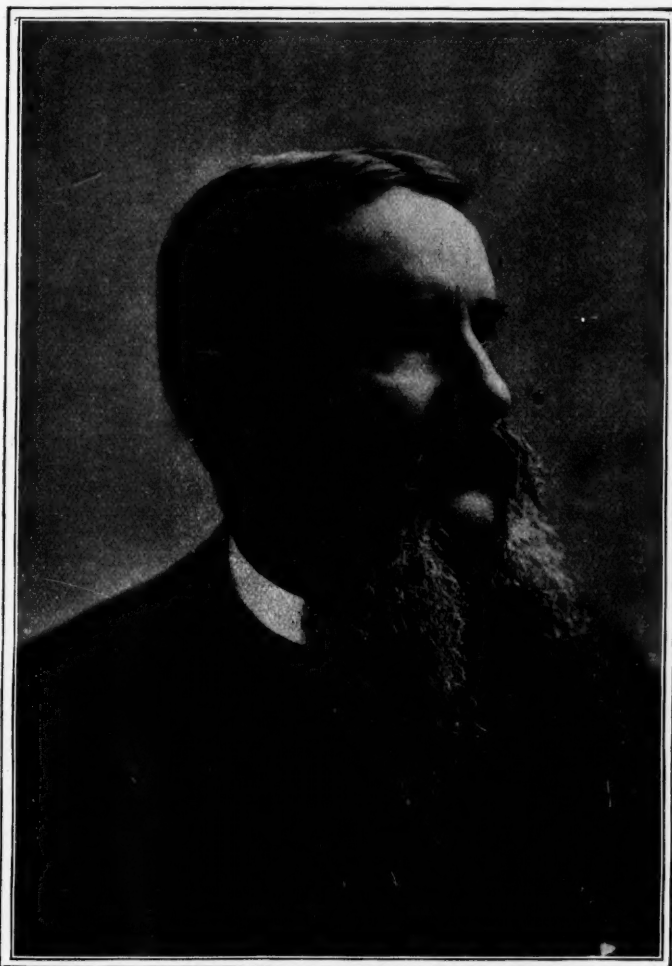


Photo by Bell.

REAR ADMIRAL JOHN G. WALKER.

1862, and in the reports of the operations before Vicksburg and adjacent waters his name is mentioned with honor in the dispatches sent to Washington. His first active command was that of the steamer *Baron de Kalb*, one of those old river boats by courtesy called ironclads, for the reason that their vital parts were protected by layers of railroad iron and their pilot-houses and top sides sheathed in what was practically old junk; but they were formidable vessels nevertheless, and did such good work that their record makes a separate history in the Navy Department to-day.

In the *De Kalb* Commander Walker was present at the attacks upon Haines' Bluff and as-

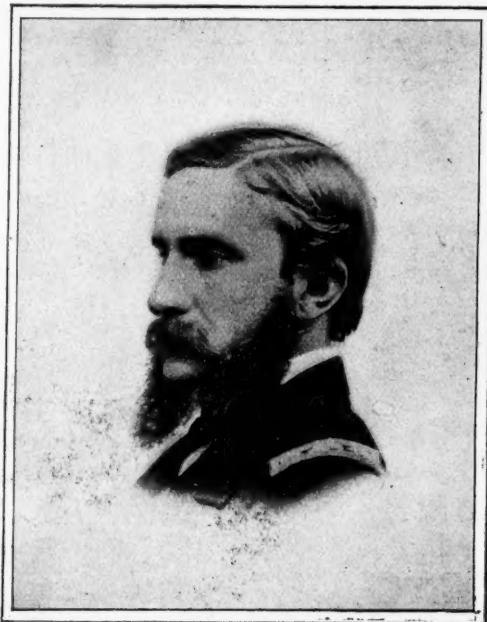
sisted in the capture of Arkansas Post. On the latter occasion his good work was mentioned in the dispatches *cum laude*. Vicksburg, of course, was the important position of the river. It was the point that the Confederates had determined to hold at all hazards, and it cost lives and money in plenty to encompass its reduction. Many strategies were resorted to and many plans were proposed for the coöperation of the army under Grant and of the river forces above and below the batteries. One of these plans that if entirely successful would have hastened the fall of the rebel stronghold was the attempt to gain the rear of the city and the weak part of the defenses by means of a canal opening into the waters of the

river. The *De Kalb* formed part of the flotilla that made the attempt through what was known as the Yazoo Pass. In the Haines' Bluff affair the fortifications had been found deserted and were occupied, and destroyed. As soon as this had been accomplished, Walker's little vessel, with three small gunboats, was sent to dislodge the Confederates, who hastily engaged in fortifying Yazoo City, whose importance as a depot of supplies for the Southern army had long been recognized. In coöperation with this expedition a land force of five thousand men under General Herron was engaged. After a sharp but decided conflict the rebels were defeated and left hastily in a confused retreat, but they had taken pains to destroy all the property they could possibly set fire to in order to prevent it from falling into the hands of the Union forces. Everything was saved, however, by prompt action, and but four steamers moored close under the bluffs were eaten by the flames; one Confederate gunboat was captured early in the day. A most unfortunate occurrence took place during this action. The *De Kalb* tripped across a sunken torpedo and was blown up and sunk, but fortunately in shallow water, and her officers and crew escaped without any great difficulty. Of course no blame could be attached to any commander for such an unforeseen accident, and although now without a ship, Walker found immediate and worthy employment ashore, for he was placed in command of the naval battery of the Fifteenth Army Corps, that assisted so materially in leveling the defenses and bringing the Vicksburg defenders to terms.

WELL-EARNED PROMOTION.

Upon Admiral Porter receiving orders that transferred his flag from the gulf to the Atlantic coast, he chose to take with him several of the young officers who had won his trust and confidence. Among these fortunates was Lieutenant Walker, who was given the command of the gunboat *Saco* and afterward transferred to the *Shawmut*, in which he participated in the important capture of Wilmington, N. C. During the remainder of the war Walker was employed in the coast blockading squadron, and at its close he was ordered to proceed in the *Shawmut* to the Brazilian station. On July 25, 1866, for "gallant and meritorious services during the War of the Rebellion," it was recommended by the board of promotions that he be advanced several numbers on the list—to the position of commander. This was accordingly done, to the great satisfaction of those in authority, for his worth and value as an officer and especially as an organizer of men and forces had been recognized. Admiral Porter, whose headquarters were at the Annapolis

Naval Academy, appointed him his chief of staff in the fall of this same year, and he remained on shore until 1869, when he was selected, because of his special fitness for the post, to be the commander of the frigate *Sabine*. This vessel was commissioned for a cruise of instruction for graduated midshipmen from the Naval Academy, and this



LIEUT. JOHN G. WALKER AS COMMANDER OF THE
"BARON DE KALB" IN 1862.

cruise is even now remembered by many of the junior officers on the list as a red-letter event; in every way it was most successful. In 1871 Commander Walker was appointed lighthouse inspector. Immediately he began a reorganization of the department, and it was not long before the thoughtfulness of his supervision and his constant care of detail began to show good results. Two years later he became the secretary and practical head of the Lighthouse Board, which position he held until 1878. During this period, on June 25, 1877, he had been promoted to be a captain. His great ability in administrative affairs clearly demonstrated the fact that he was eligible for any office of great importance, and this may account for a rather remarkable occurrence in his later life.

EXECUTIVE ABILITY.

In 1879 Captain Walker secured leave of absence and was engaged in railroad work in connection with the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy

Railroad, but after a year or so he was again tempted to return to his old calling, which was indeed his proper sphere, and in March, 1881, he was ordered to command the old steamship *Powhatan*, a relic of a departed naval era, but a vessel that had done much good service and had been commanded by many famous men. In October of this year Captain Walker was appointed Chief of the Bureau of Navigation, a position requiring not only administrative power, but the greatest tact and good judgment. It was one of his characteristics that he found it easy to get on with the politicians and parties and secure their attention to naval affairs. His career at Washington showed plainly that this last appointment had been a wise one. No matter of detail escaped his notice, and although it is hard for a man occupying such a position to please every one, yet it can be said of him that the service profited by his judgment and the *personnel* improved under his guidance. Until the fall of 1889 he remained on shore. On February 12 of that year he had been promoted commodore, and in November he went on board the new cruiser *Chicago* and prepared to take charge of the new squadron of evolution—an important event in our naval history, as it marked the transition from the old order of affairs to the new.

IN COMMAND OF THE "WHITE SQUADRON."

The sailing of this little fleet was heralded throughout the country, and indeed it marked an epoch. The "white squadron" became famous; it was the nucleus of our fine and modern navy. Although the vessels were comparatively small and have been cast into the shade by the powerful fighting machines completed during the last few years, they are yet fine ships and have served a good purpose. Although but a commodore, Walker was given the rank of acting rear admiral for this cruise. He had under his command the following vessels: First, the *Chicago*, from which he flew his flag, an armored cruiser of 4,500 tons, 5,000

horse-power, and a complement of 400 officers and men. With her sailing masts and topsails she presented a very different appearance from the extreme type of the modern cruiser, with its military masts and fighting tops (she has been changed to this lately), but she was a very serviceable craft, and developed 16 knots upon her trial trip—not a bad rate of speed in those days for a vessel of her size. The *Atlanta* and *Boston*, two sister ships, were of 3,000 tons each. The former was of 3,500 horse-

power, and the latter developed in her official trial 4,200. The *Yorktown*, a handsome little gunboat, was of 1,700 tons, 2,200 horse-power, and had developed a speed of 16½ knots while cruising. It was not the intention of the Government to make a holiday showing of the new ships, and although this was the first appearance of any modern vessels of our navy in European waters, the admiral was plainly out for work and practice. It must be confessed, however, that to a certain extent there was an object-lesson conveyed to the foreign powers by the sight of these trim vessels in their ports. For years the American officers had been accustomed to slowly am-



CAPT. JOHN G. WALKER AS CHIEF OF THE BUREAU OF NAVIGATION IN 1881.

ble from one place to another in nondescript ships that sailed when there was wind enough to carry them and steamed as well as they could under their boilers when there was not. They felt conscious that they did not represent to any extent the wealth and power of their country, and a promise of better ships and consequently better quarters and commands was hailed with great delight. The doings and whereabouts of the squadron were reported at length in all the home papers, and through the drawings of Mr. Rufus F. Zogbaum, who accompanied the fleet, their evolutions and appearance became familiar to the readers of the illustrated weeklies.

Upon the return of the squadron to the United States nothing but praise was heard for the manner in which the officers, ships, and men had acquitted themselves. Congress was stimulated un-

der the renewed interest of the country at large to vote appropriations for the farther enlargement of a national service at sea.

IN SOUTH AMERICA AND ON THE PACIFIC.

Relieved of the squadron, Commodore Walker was transferred to the South Atlantic coast and remained for some time in Brazilian waters. Upon his return to the North he was third in command at the great naval review in New York City, Admirals Gherardi and Benham being his seniors. In 1892 he was ordered to Venezuela to protect American interests jeopardized by one of the ever-recurring revolutions that break out among our sister republics like intermittent volcanoes, and later he was transferred to the command of the naval forces of the Pacific. The stand that he took in regard to the troubles at Hawaii brought him immediately before the public eye. Probably no one could have made a closer and more accurate examination of the state of affairs then existing in the Sandwich Islands than he did, and clearly his report has been borne out by subsequent events. The standpoint he took was distinctly opposed to that of the executive, and although it was overruled, the wisdom of the course he suggested (in view of subsequent events, as we have said) cannot be questioned. It was much commented upon and was remarkable for its independence and freedom from bias due to the opinions of the commander-in-chief. Upon Walker's return he was once more assigned to shore duty at Washington, in which he was employed until his retirement, his promotion to rear admiral having taken place on January 23, 1894. The position that Admiral Walker had made for himself and the value put upon his services is proved by the strenuous efforts made to have the statute law so changed that he might be appointed after his retirement to be Assistant Secretary of the Navy. This is the remarkable occurrence to which we have referred earlier in this article. In summing up the career of which this has been the merest outline, it is found



JOHN G. WALKER IN THE UNIFORM OF A REAR ADMIRAL.

that Rear Admiral Walker during his forty-six years of service has spent seventeen years at sea, twenty-five years on shore duty, and but five years and seven months unemployed. His sea service under the rank at which he retired was but four months, but during his active life since he had been given flag rank he had commanded three out of the four squadrons into which our naval forces are divided. He has been a close student of international affairs, and his knowledge of the conditions and difficulties existing in Central America is second to that of no one in the naval service. It is well known that he has studied carefully the question of the trans-Isthmian canals and is well informed on the subject concerning their value and practicability.

III.—CAPT. O. M. CARTER, CORPS OF ENGINEERS, U. S. A.

THE law authorizing the President to appoint, with the advice and consent of the Senate, a commission of three to make the necessary additional surveys of the Nicaragua Canal route, provides that one member of that body shall be an officer of the Corps of Engineers, U. S. A. From the list of officers of engineers possessing the qualifications and experience which

peculiarly fit them for duty of this character, the President selected Capt. Oberlin M. Carter, and nominated him for the position.

Captain Carter was born July 11, 1856, at Paitroit, Gallia County, Ohio, and received his earlier education at the public schools in that section of the State. In 1875 a vacancy occurred at the United States Military Academy for the

district in which he resided, and young Carter, then engaged in teaching school at Gallipolis, Ohio, was very anxious to secure the appointment. Since the political affiliations of his immediate relatives were opposed to those professed by the member of Congress, Carter was not successful in gaining the prize. Nothing daunted, he at once turned all his energies toward securing an appointment as a cadet at large, by no means an easy task at any time. The thoroughness with which he had accomplished everything that he had undertaken during his school days and earlier manhood had gained for him many admirers and warm friends, who assisted him in this new enterprise. Through them he obtained recognition by the present Secretary of State, and on the representation that Carter was the brightest and most capable young man in the State, the President, Rutherford Hayes, appointed him a cadet at large on April 4, 1876; by the end of the same month the name of Oberlin M. Carter was enrolled as a cadet at the Military Academy.

A REMARKABLE WEST POINT RECORD.

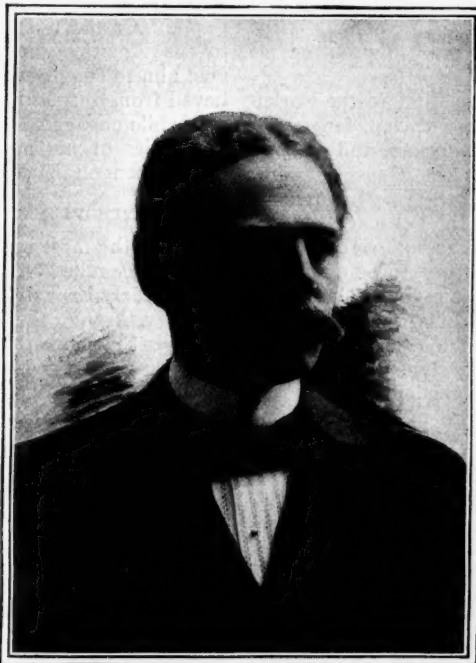
His career as a cadet was a most creditable one, not only to himself, but to all who assisted him in procuring the position, and clearly showed that the strong terms of commendation which were instrumental in securing his appointment were by no means exaggerated. The cadet register for 1877 shows the name O. M. Carter at the head of the fourth class, and this standing in the class he maintained throughout the entire four years. He was graduated June 12, 1880, having attained the highest general average in the academic course made up to that time since the foundation of the institution. In the purely military part of the curriculum his record was no less enviable; after wearing the chevrons of a cadet corporal and sergeant as a first-class man, he was designated cadet lieutenant and adjutant, the most desired and coveted position in the battalion of cadets.

Lieutenant Carter's commission as a second lieutenant in the Corps of Engineers was dated from June 12, 1880. He spent the summer months after graduation at his *alma mater* instructing the cadets of the then first class in practical military engineering, as assistant to Capt. (now Major) Charles W. Raymond, Corps of Engineers. From the fall of 1880 to October 31, 1882, Lieutenant Carter was on duty at Willets Point, New York harbor, as a student officer at the Engineer School of Application, where he acquitted himself with credit. He was promoted

to the grade of first lieutenant in the Corps of Engineers in June, 1882.

ENGINEERING IN THE FAR WEST AND IN GEORGIA.

On completion of the post-graduate course at Willets Point he was ordered to Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, reporting to General Pope, then in command of the Military Department of the Platte, for duty as engineer officer, which position he held for nearly two years. Most of this time was spent in the field making reconnoissances into comparatively unknown sections of Colorado and New Mexico, mapping various portions of the department and surveying and locating astronomically various military posts. He familiarized himself with all the details of field



CAPT. OBERLIN M. CARTER, U.S.A.

service, including the care of the men and animals intrusted to his command. No work was too arduous or onerous for the young officer to undertake, and his devotion to duty, as well as the thorough manner in which his work was done, gained for him the confidence and respect of his superiors and associates. When General Pope's promotion took him to the command of the Military Division of the Pacific, he was very desirous of having Lieutenant Carter transferred to San Francisco, and subsequently recommended him to General Miles, then in command of the Department of the Columbia, as the most competent officer to conduct certain military reconnoissances into Alaska that General Miles was very anxious to have made. This transfer, however,

was not accomplished. The large increase in river and harbor improvements authorized by Congress necessitated the assignment of a greater number of officers of the Corps of Engineers to civil work, and Lieutenant Carter was relieved from duty as engineer officer of a military department on August 11, 1884.

The orders relieving him took him East, and he reported for duty to Gen. Quincy Gillmore, Lieutenant-Colonel Corps of Engineers, as his assistant. At that time General Gillmore was in charge of all the improvements along the southeast Atlantic coast, and on October 14, 1884, he assigned Lieutenant Carter to Savannah, with local charge of the various works in progress in Georgia.

After the death of General Gillmore the works were transferred to the charge of Gen. Henry L. Abbot, Colonel Corps of Engineers, and on his recommendation the works in Georgia were placed under the direct charge of Lieutenant Carter, April 24, 1888. In February, 1891, Lieutenant Carter was promoted to the grade that he now holds, captain Corps of Engineers. During that same year, at the earnest solicitation of the citizens of Brunswick, Ga., he conducted certain experiments to determine the influence of explosions of large charges of dynamite on ocean bars, more particularly the tendency to deepen the water. The results were published in the Proceedings of the American Society of Civil Engineers, of which he is a member.

CAPTAIN CARTER REPRESENTS AMERICAN ENGINEERS ABROAD.

In 1895 he went abroad, and was the representative of the War Department at an international congress of engineers held at Zurich, Switzerland, to consider the subject of uniform tests of materials used in engineering constructions. He attends, in the same capacity, a similar assemblage held at Stockholm this year during the latter part of August.

He has translated several pamphlets of professional interest; among them may be mentioned the "Influence of Sea Water on Hydraulic Mortars" and "Tests of Materials." In 1895 Gen. Nelson A. Miles, commanding the army, during a tour of inspection of the defenses along the southeast Atlantic, was shown over those guarding the entrance to Savannah by Captain Carter. The general was so favorably impressed with the junior officer's ability, the intimate knowledge of his work, and professional zeal, that on his return to Washington he applied to have Captain Carter detailed as his aid-de-camp.

Ill health at that time, together with a strong desire to complete the magnificent work in

Savannah harbor, then nearly finished, combined to postpone the actual compliance with this assignment.

Early in 1896 the then chief of engineers, Gen. William P. Craighill, recommended Captain Carter to the president of the American Society of Civil Engineers as a member of a committee to be selected for the purpose of fixing upon uniform standard tests of cement. Whether his present duties will enable him to accept the position is uncertain.

On application of the Chief of the Bureau of Military Information of the War Department, Captain Carter was detailed as military *attaché* to the American embassy at London. To enable him to comply with these orders, he was relieved from duty at Savannah on July 20, 1897, and while engaged in familiarizing himself with the duties of his new position, he received the appointment on the Nicaragua Canal Commission.

THE IMPROVEMENT OF SAVANNAH HARBOR.

By far the most important work on which he has been engaged—the one which has made him most widely known in this country, more particularly through the Southeast—is the improvement of Savannah harbor. During the four years of apprenticeship under General Gillmore he personally conducted all the surveys made of that locality, carefully studied all the conditions attending the construction of the various pieces of dams or jetties, the effect of the storms on the shifting sands, the force and direction of the tidal currents, and, in short, all the details necessary to a complete solution of the problem confronting him, viz., to secure and maintain a navigable channel to Savannah sufficient to meet all present and future demands of commerce.

In 1890 he presented his project for the establishment of a channel having a depth of 26 feet at mean high water, from the city of Savannah to the sea, at an estimated cost of \$3,500,000, provided funds should be regularly and adequately supplied. The project contemplated the construction of training walls, the erection of dams to close side channels, the building of wing dams or dikes to confine or deflect the water, the dredging of existing islands, shoals, etc., obstructing the proposed route, with shore protection at various localities along the new channel.

Congress adopted the project, made the first appropriation for carrying it into execution in 1892, and at the same time authorized the making of contracts for the completion of the entire work. Contracts were made in the fall of 1892, under which work was commenced immediately thereafter, and the project was completed in the spring of 1890, within the estimated cost for the

improvement. The undertaking was a bold one, and the results obtained are very creditable to the projector. When, a couple of years ago, the Atlantic squadron steamed up the harbor and anchored off the lower end of the city, doubt as to the result no longer existed, and the seemingly large amount expended was justified.

The object sought has been obtained, and there is at present a channel from the city to the sea with a navigable depth of not less than 20 feet at mean low and 26 feet at mean high tide, with a minimum width of 240 feet, a gain of 11 feet in depth since the commencement of the work under the project. Some idea of the magnitude of the undertaking may be obtained from the fact that the finished work contained 43,200 linear feet of mat dams and 46,300 linear feet of pile dams; in addition 5,900,000 cubic yards of material were removed by dredging from the selected channel.

Not content with this vast improvement over the former conditions, commerce demanded an anchorage for vessels lying in Tybee Roads, and in response to an inquiry by Congress, Captain Carter, in 1895, submitted a report showing the desirability of continuing the improvement so as to afford such a safe anchorage, by extending part of the existing Oyster Bay training wall and constructing a detached spur parallel to the currents along the axis of the shoal between Tybee Roads and Calibogue Sound. This project also provided for a steamboat channel between Beaufort, S. C., and Savannah. In the river and harbor act of 1896 Congress adopted this project and authorized the Secretary of War to enter into contracts for its completion. The work is now well under way.

OTHER RIVER AND HARBOR WORK.

Another work of much importance is Cumberland Sound, Ga. Irregular and inadequate appropriations rendered necessary a new project for removing the bar obstructing the entrance. Captain Carter's plan for the improvement of this locality having met the approval of a board of engineer officers was adopted by Congress in 1896, and under authority of law contracts have been made for the completion of the work.

The other works of internal improvement with which Captain Carter was intrusted may be briefly enumerated as follows: Savannah River, Darien harbor, Altamaha, Oconee and Ocmulgee rivers, Brunswick harbor, Jekyl Creek, and the inside water route between Savannah, Ga., and Fernandina, Fla. On these improvements dredging, constructing works of regulation, blasting of rock, snagging, etc., formed the principal character of work. Though of minor

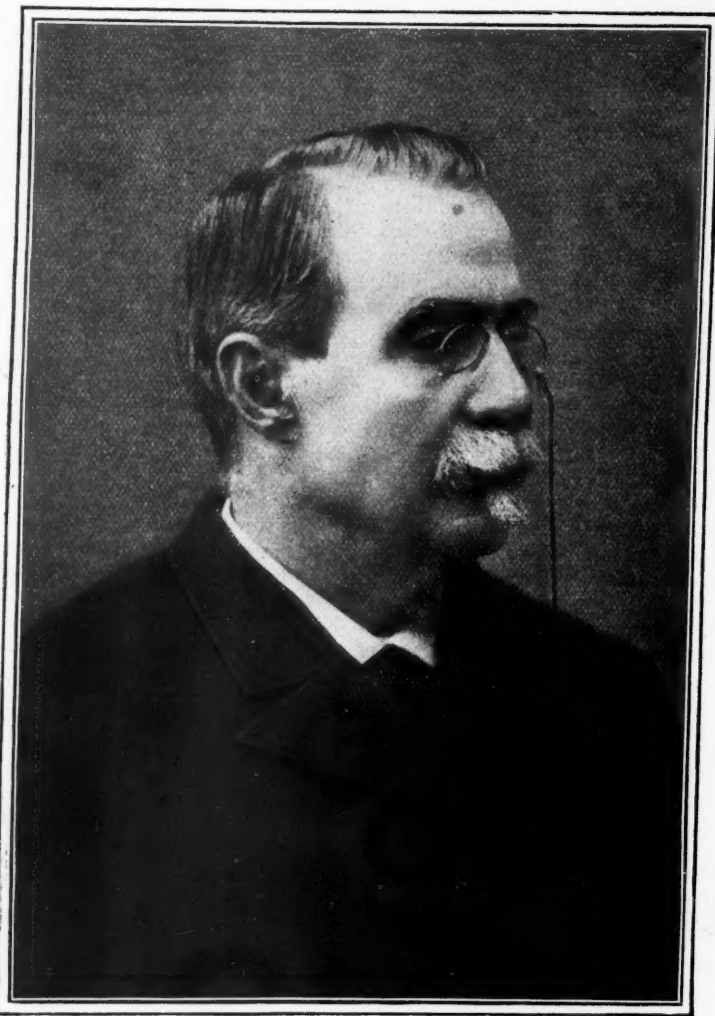
importance to the two mentioned above, they have been none the less successfully executed, and with as much careful study and skill as the more important ones.

The civil works were not the only ones to demand time and attention, for Captain Carter was also charged with the care and preservation of the defensive works in the vicinity of Savannah, Ga., and Fernandina, Fla. It is but a few years ago that the local press reported his entering one of the magazines in Fort Pulaski and saving a considerable amount of ammunition at the risk of his life during a fire. Fortifications are now being constructed on Tybee Island in accordance with plans prepared by Captain Carter. Work of this character has made him familiar with concrete construction, and will stand him in good stead in his new field of engineering.

THE NICARAGUA SURVEY.

The foregoing brief outline of a very creditable career clearly indicates that he is well fitted to satisfactorily perform the duties that will necessarily devolve upon him as a member of the Nicaragua Canal Commission. His experience in the West conducting surveys through a wild, uninhabited country will be of inestimable value to him in making the surveys through Nicaragua, and the men under him will fare the better because of such experience. The hydrographic work in Greytown and Britto harbors and in the lake will be but a repetition of the work he has personally performed in the harbors along the Georgia coast. The dredging operations through the lowlands adjacent to Greytown harbor will recall some of the work he has already performed. His knowledge of concrete constructions will be of use when the locks are under consideration; in short, there is but little of the work with which he will not be familiar.

Captain Carter is one of the most pleasant and genial of gentlemen, a very general favorite, and he will be found a most charming companion by his associates. Though a hard student of his profession, he has found spare moments to devote to literature and to the study of art, in both of which he is well versed. He speaks French fluently, German and Spanish sufficiently to make himself understood. He is endowed with an energy that is tireless and a power of application and of concentration of thought that is truly remarkable. His duty is his first consideration; when a task is before him he sets to work to accomplish it, and nothing can detract his attention until it is finished. Though fond of society, social duties or pleasures have never interfered with his work. It is to these qualities that he owes the success that his career has merited.



THE LATE CANOVAS DEL CASTILLO, PRIME MINISTER OF SPAIN.

CANOVAS: SPAIN'S FOREMOST STATESMAN.

BY EX-MINISTER J. L. M. CURRY, LL.D.

IN the public mind, among well-informed persons, there is much misapprehension or ignorance of Spain, her history, people, government, and institutions. These, if seen at all, are seen through a discolored medium. A thorough study after a residence in the country and a familiarity with the civil administration and the habits and opinions of the people is requisite to an intelligent understanding. This is true of all foreign governments and people and especially so, for manifest reasons, of the Iberian Peninsula.

At the threshold it is necessary to recognize the facts that Spain is poor and Spain is proud, and that these conditions materially affect intercourse with strangers, domestic usages, and home and foreign policy. The government is closely modeled after Great Britain and is practically a government by the Cortes through the cabinet or ministry. The queen regent has as little civil or political power as Queen Victoria. The two principal or dominant parties, the Conservative and the Liberal, for years have alternately con-

trolled affairs through the respective ministries headed by Canovas and Sagasta. There are subdivisions or separate organizations of these parties, too feeble or divided to gain ascendancy, such as the Republican, the Carlist, the Socialist. In the last few years insurrections in Cuba and the Philippine Islands have greatly embarrassed the government and excited the entire population. Having once been enriched and exalted to a first-class power by immense continental possessions which have almost entirely slipped from her hands, Spain reluctantly yields the last vestige and tenaciously, frantically, almost suicidally, clings to what must soon escape her grasp unless she will consent to their assuming a connection with the mother country similar to that which exists between Canada and Great Britain. A history lustrous with brilliant military achievements and great prowess makes it difficult and mortifying for her to accept or submit to the present condition, inevitable as it appears to be. She is carrying on remote wars in an attempt, fruitless thus far, to suppress rebellions by incompetent officers and with an empty treasury and what might, without misuse of terms, be called national bankruptcy. The national finances are in a deplorable, incurable condition, and there is little visible prospect of a redemption of bonds when the war is over. Agriculture, fruit-raising, mining, and manufactures are scarcely remunerative. Under a severe and prolonged strain and criminal maladministration, in peace as well as in war, the most fruitful sources of revenue have been pledged in advance to exacting creditors or otherwise exhausted. Lotteries, State owned and managed, have regularly appeared in annual budgets among the estimated receipts, but this absurd and deceptive policy only aggravates existing evils and enhances impecuniousness. The liberalizing and profitable commercial policy as taught by Adam Smith, Mill, and Gladstone has not been tried, and restrictive tariffs and *octroi* duties are and long have been the accepted policy. It has seemed incomprehensible that Spain, under such adverse circumstances, does not accept what she is unable to prevent and make terms with the revolting provinces; but it may be safely affirmed that there is not a man, woman, or child of any party in the whole country who is willing to yield sovereignty over a foot of Cuba. Loyalty to the monarchy and loyalty to the Church are distinguishing characteristics of Spaniards, and one or the other, conjoined to pride of ancestry or nation, will account for what is strange and inexplicable.

A brief and necessarily imperfect *résumé* of Spanish history for the last half century will enable us to appreciate the character and work of

the murdered statesman. They have been years of conflict, civil war, rebellion, conspiracy, changes of rulers, such as few equal periods can parallel. (A fuller and more picturesque account of the events and persons may be found in a little book—"Constitutional Government in Spain"—published by Harper & Brothers.)

On the death of Ferdinand in 1833, Christina, by the will of her husband, was constituted guardian of the children and became regent, to save the throne for her infant daughter. The claims and machinations of Don Carlos, the brother of Ferdinand, imperiled the succession, as he asserted a right to be the sovereign. From this claim originated Carlism, the spring "of woes unnumbered" which has cursed poor Spain with heavy expenditures and hostile rivalries and bloodshed and uninterrupted excitement and apprehension. The old Gallic law of France prevented the succession of female heirs to the throne, but the practice of Spain had been almost uniformly different. Ferdinand in 1831 revived and restored the preëxisting law, allowing the succession of women. This he had the right to do, according to the opinion of the most accredited jurists of Europe and of Caleb Cushing, than whom our country has had no diplomatist better versed in international law. All foreign powers, including the pope, have denied the legitimacy of Don Carlos, but his followers, now as heretofore, are availing themselves of every opportunity which gives faintest hope of success. Christina was an excessively wicked woman, cruelly neglectful of her children, avaricious, ambitious, intriguing, immoral, and by her excesses so exasperated her subjects that she was banished with her abettors. Espartero was chosen regent, but had soon to escape into exile. In 1843 Isabella, at thirteen years of age, the Cortes having declared her eligible, was sworn in as reigning queen. With a defective education, in her inexperience and immaturity she became the prey of the bad and the designing and fell a victim to their plots. With the rising sentiment in favor of a better government and in indignant protest against flagrant abuses, the people drove her from the palace and the country. Her expulsion shows that the statesmen and people were able and willing to resort to the necessary means, however drastic and forceful, to free their country from the wrongs and oppressions of a weak and wicked reign. A provisional government was at once established. In 1869 a constitution was promulgated, liberal in many of its features, establishing an elective monarchy, but instability and incertitude were "the order of the day." Leopold of Hohenzollern was proposed as king, and although, under

proper advice, he declined the proffered honor the mere attempt to put him on the throne caused the Franco-Prussian war, the collapse of the French empire, the extinction of the Napoleonic dynasty, and the establishment of the republic of France. Amadeo, brother of King Humbert, was elected king and accepted the post of danger, soon illustrating anew the old adage, "Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown." Tired of unstable ministers and of the factions which surrounded and harassed him, he cheerfully abdicated his royal authority and returned to his native Italy. Such unprecedented dynastic change excited consternation. Everything was in confusion. Castelar declared that "the great problem is to ally order with liberty." A republic sprang into existence. In less than a twelve-month four presidents, Figueras, Pi y Margall, Galmeron, and Castelar, succeeded one another like the rapidly changing views in a kaleidoscope. The army overthrew the republic, which fell without a struggle, and a regency was announced under the presidency of Canovas. This movement was for the avowed purpose of enthroning Alfonso, son of Isabella, and it was accomplished with celerity and to the general satisfaction of the nation. In 1885 Alfonso died and his widow, Maria Christina of Austria, became queen regent. In May, 1886, Alfonso XIII. was born a king, and all royal decrees have since been issued in his name in conjunction with the regent. Carlos, in exile, protested against the "usurpation" of the infant king.

Antonio Canovas del Castillo was an illustration of what has not been infrequent in monarchical and aristocratic governments. Men of genius, of great industry and capacity, in spite of adverse early environments, of the accidents of birth and fortune, rise to positions of eminence and are accepted as leaders, possessors of the true right divine. He was of humble origin and was born in Malaga in 1828, and his career was as remarkable as that of any who have sprung from the ranks of the people. In youth he essayed engineering and journalism, and this early experience in affairs was very helpful to him afterward when he was charged with graver and more wide-reaching responsibilities. Elected in 1854 from his native district to the Cortes, he was subsequently so continuously in office that his biography is a history of his country. His wide and varied experience as *chargé d'affaires* at Rome, as Governor of Cadiz, as under secretary of the interior, as minister of finance and the colonies gave him acquaintance with men and a thorough insight into every department of administration. His university life, when he was a fellow-student of Castelar, with whom, de-

spite the widest political differences, he kept up an unbroken personal friendship, his liberal education and connection with the press made him a student of literature, history, and politics, and he made creditable contributions in addresses and lectures and books. Like many of his contemporaries in England, France, and Germany, he did not allow his public service to narrow his intellectual range, but widened it by authorship and companionship with the thoughts of the best writers. His library, rich with choicest works, was his delight, and in his vacations he found there, with his accomplished wife and invited guests, as much enjoyment as in the contentions of the forum. A member of the Royal Academy of History, he made proof of his interest by preparing several volumes of history. The Ateneo is the intellectual center of Madrid, and the lectures on scientific, literary, historical, geographical, political, and ethical subjects delivered by the most cultured and learned are among the principal educational influences of Spain. The best men regard it as a high distinction and most honorable privilege to be invited to appear before the association. Canovas delivered annual addresses, as president of the society, on moral and political science, and they are among the most valuable disquisitions which have emanated from this distinguished body.

Being a faithful and laborious student, a voracious reader, he accumulated much knowledge which was an unfailing resource in his numerous debates in the Cortes. Having a passion for such conflicts, his ambition and courage enticed him into the arena, where he reveled in the *gaudia certaminis*. His quick conceptions, ready and apt illustrations, strong imagination, vigorous language, power of condensed expression, earnestness of purpose, buoyant energy, flashing wit, mordant sarcasm, made him a great debater. He was not like the polished, persuasive, brilliant, gifted Moret, nor was he endowed with the exuberant fancy, the expressive metaphor, the overwhelming elegance of Castelar. His oratory was unique, strong, impassioned; it was ignited logic; and I have heard him in the Cortes when he seemed the embodiment of burning patriotism. Preëminently he was a Spaniard, with soul-absorbing love of country, her language, traditions, achievements, institutions, intensified by the national characteristics of pride and chivalry and strikingly illustrated in his dying words, *Long live Spain*.

By capacity for leadership, force of intellect, calm wisdom, ripened knowledge, he became the sagacious statesman and the controlling personality of the Conservative party. In the troublous and disordered times, in the mutations of par-

ties and reigning sovereigns, he was the inflexible advocate of monarchy and the friend of the Bourbon dynasty. Step by step he ascended the ladder, holding office after office, and yet, in public positions or in the background, he was the adviser and counselor. Although the army was the visible agency in bringing about revolutions in behalf of the exile, it was his hand that guided and his brain chiefly that directed. It was unquestionably through his ability and his fidelity to his sovereign that the Alfonsist movement was so wisely planned and conducted to such signal success. During the interregnum between banished mother and restored son he acted with consummate judgment, waiting and working for the proper moment, the full time, when he could move with assurance of victory. With patience, sagacious discrimination, faultless prudence, he acted, and when the decisive hour arrived nothing was left to chance. With wonderful prevision everything had been prearranged. The exiled queen having formally abdicated in favor of Alfonso, Canovas had discreetly obtained authority from him to take the necessary steps as emergencies might arise and for forming a provisional government until the king himself should reënter his dominion. When he did arrive he confirmed what had been done, appointed Canovas premier and president of the council, and put back, as far as he dared, the royal prerogatives *in statu quo* prior to the republic and the accession of the Italian. For far-seeing and practical statecraft nothing in modern times surpasses this *coup d'état*. A restoration is said to be worse in England than a revolution, but such was not the experience of Spain at this time.

The year after the accession of the king the demand for a new constitution, with more definite grants and limitations, was acted upon, and the instrument which remains as the organic law Canovas was the chief agent in framing and securing the adoption of. In no equivocal terms it recognized hereditary monarchy, the division of power into the usual departments, and the rights of person and property. It established "the Apostolic Roman religion" as the religion of the State and obliged the State to maintain the worship and its ministers. In language too dubious toleration is conceded of other forms of worship. While this too cautious provision was vehemently opposed by the bishops and clergy, it is to the credit of Canovas that he gave to it his cordial support.

In November, 1885, when Alfonso died, Christina, his widow, was at once appointed regent. It was a time of intense anxiety. What Carlists

and Republicans might do to accomplish their peculiar views was a matter of earnest conjecture. The throne, in this crisis, needed the united cooperation of all its friends. Canovas and his fellow-ministers tendered their resignations. With a self-sacrifice and magnanimity that exalts him to the pinnacle of loyalty and patriotism, he advised the queen to form a Liberal government, that she might have in her difficult position the support of both parties and thus tide over what threatened to wreck the established order. Sagasta was then placed at the head of the cabinet.

Canovas has been prime minister during the Cuban war and has had, of course, in the present strained relations between his country and the United States, most perplexing questions to act upon. The public mind on both sides is too inflamed for an impartial or accurate judgment, but the opinion may be safely hazarded that when the correspondence is published it will be found that Canovas, in all that constitutes intelligent and skilled diplomacy, has been no whit inferior to his antagonists nor to any of that profession, so renowned in Europe.

Under her laws and usages Spain allows, in large measure, manhood suffrage and eligibility to office, freedom of association, of speech, of press, of education, and except in some particulars, due to illiterary, to church power, to bad administration, to perverse adherence to traditions, is not distinguishable from other enlightened governments in Europe. In view of this personal and civil freedom, it is strange that radicalism, or anarchy, should resort to the remedy of brutal assassination in order to avenge supposed wrongs or get rid of alleged evils. The gospel of the dynamite and the dagger, of which Wendell Phillips spoke in his Harvard oration, produces, sooner or later, its legitimate results. The deaths of Lincoln, Garfield, Cavour, the Czar of Russia, and Canovas make men hold their breath in timorous apprehension, and show that on both continents no precaution affords perfect security against the most atrocious crimes. Spies, detectives, police, soldiers, seem alike impotent to prevent fatal assaults. Perhaps intellectual or moral education, or patriotism, best safeguards rulers and leaders. To the queen regent, once asking with curious concern about the absence of attending soldiers about the person or movements of President Cleveland, I replied that I had several times seen her majesty and children walking, unattended and with fearlessness, in the Retiro, a public park, and that her best security was in the loyalty of her people, on whom she relied with entire confidence.



PRESIDENT E. BENJAMIN ANDREWS, OF BROWN UNIVERSITY.

PRESIDENT ANDREWS AND THE SITUATION AT BROWN.

IN spite of the unfortunate condition of things which just now prevails at Brown University, the friends of education may find some comfort in the thought that so exceptionally widespread an interest in an academic trouble gives evidence of a solicitude for the best interests of the higher education in America more extensive, if not deeper, than we can easily imagine to have prevailed in other countries or at other times. The editor of the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* has believed that a large part of the public interest centers round the personality of Dr. Andrews, and that some discussion of his character and history would be welcome to many readers. He has asked this discussion at the

hands of the present writer, whose anonymity will not be used as a shield of unfairness.

Elisha Benjamin Andrews was born in Hinsdale, N. H., on January 10, 1844. His father was a Baptist minister of unusual force of character. His mother was characterized to her last days by vigor of mind and strong interest in public affairs. One of his brothers is, or was, Chief Justice of the State of Connecticut. Andrews' boyhood was spent chiefly in Connecticut and Western Massachusetts. At an early age (about seventeen) he entered the Union army. He served in the artillery, in which he became a lieutenant. He has the reputation of having been an unusually faithful, brave, and intelligent

soldier. After the war, having determined to go to college, he rapidly prepared himself, and in 1866 entered Brown University, where he was graduated in 1870 with high rank. He studied theology, and was for a year or two pastor of a Baptist church at Gloucester, Mass. Then he was for a brief period president of Denison University at Granville, Ohio. Next he was for several years a professor of homiletics in the Baptist theological institution at Newton Center, whence he was called, soon after the death of Prof. J. Lewis Diman, to take the chair of history and political economy at Brown University. He occupied this chair six years, and then went to Cornell as professor of economics. A year later, in 1889, he was called back to Brown to assume the duties of the presidency and the professorship of philosophy.

It will be seen that Dr. Andrews has taught, and he has taught with great success, in several different departments. One of his colleagues has sometimes called him the last of the Anakim, meaning the last representative of that old-time type of college president and professor who could teach almost any subject with equal facility, because his eminence lay not so much in the specialization which marks the modern professor as in that general strength of mind and teaching power which it is to be feared the modern college does not generate as the old college did. Dr. Andrews is indeed a man of extensive scholarship. The books which he wrote as a professor, college manuals of history and economics, though hard for the ordinary student to digest, evince great originality and power of thought, and were based upon extensive and laborious study. The books which he has written while president have suffered from want of the time necessary to make their execution adequate to their plan. The experts seem to think that his "History of the United States," in two volumes, contains many errors of detail; but they appear to concede that it is a good piece of work as respects its spirit and general tone, presents the main facts correctly, and exhibits an extraordinary grasp upon the main movements of our national life. Catholicity and the entire absence of sectionalism mark all Dr. Andrews' writings. His "History of the United States During the Last Quarter Century" has been thought by the critics to be a hasty and inadequate performance, yet to reveal a strong sense of the realities of American life and a happy gift of seizing what is salient and characteristic in the modern march of events. It is important to know that, devoted as Dr. Andrews has been to the work of administration, he is by preference a thinker and a scholar. To some colleagues who saw him when he first heard the

news of that vote of the corporation which has been so much debated, he said that while he did not suppose they wished him to resign and he had no mind to resign if it were contrary to his duty to the university, his personal preference was decidedly to be free from the details of administrative work and to give his attention, if he could, solely to certain interesting problems of scholarship. The field of his present chief interest is philosophy, in which he is an original, learned, and acute thinker. Dr. Andrews has also great power and considerable repute as a preacher; his sermons are original, thoughtful, and convincing. Those who have learned from unscrupulous newspapers to think of him as a passionate and blatant demagogue would be surprised to learn that his public addresses are almost exclusively addressed to the intellect and consist of close reasoning, unaccompanied with rhetorical display or appeals to the emotions.

No doubt many persons who have watched the present trouble from the outside have asked themselves the question how it came about that eight years ago a corporation which differed not very greatly from that of the present day chose Dr. Andrews to be president of Brown University. The question is a pertinent one, for the choice is understood to have been made with little opposition, and certainly no other candidate stood near him in the public mind in 1889. The fact is that he was without doubt the best choice that could be made, it being understood that by the charter the choice of president is limited by the qualification that he must be a Baptist. After six years of professorial service in Providence, Professor Andrews and his characteristics were perfectly well known to the corporation. They believed that he had administrative ability, they knew that he had high character, progressive ideas, great power of work, great devotion to his *alma mater*, and extraordinary power over young men.

The characteristic last mentioned deserves, perhaps, a foremost place in the characterization of President Andrews. In eight years he has increased the college from a membership of 268 to one of 751. This growth, perhaps unprecedented among the New England colleges, has been due mainly to one thing—to the remarkable attractive power which Dr. Andrews exerts over young men. It may fairly be said that nearly every young man at Brown University in these last eight years has regarded the president with unbounded enthusiasm. No conspicuous college president except Francis Walker has during this period possessed such a hold upon the hearts of his students. The main cause of this is his own warmth of heart toward them, his constant and minute care for their general and individual in-

terests. He believes in young men. He believes that nearly all of them mean to do right, and they respond to his confidence in a manner that has made discipline in recent years hardly more than a nominal thing at Brown. When it has been necessary it has been applied with firmness; but Dr. Andrews is just and open-minded, and not arbitrary, and the boys always feel that he understands and appreciates them. He watches over their interests as individuals with great care, does all that he can to help those who are needy, and looks out for those who are not doing well to an extent that would hardly seem possible in a college that has now become so numerous. His success in dealing with students rests also in part upon his keen sense of humor; in part upon a certain surviving boyishness in him. He loves a good game of baseball, and his interest in all manner of college athletics is perfectly genuine. No doubt the students also like his straightforward, democratic ways, his *bonhomie*, and even what they would call his want of style in dress and such things; but the main sources of the hearty affection with which they regard "Benny" are on a higher plane, and do honor both to him and to them—his power, his honest manliness, his affection for them and confidence in them. It is these qualities, too, which have in large measure caused young men to flock to Brown University.

Passing to the qualities which have been more especially evinced since Dr. Andrews from a professor became a college president, it may be said that one of the most salient of these is his organizing power. It has shown itself in large matters and in small. He has a genuine love of system and a practical grasp upon the details of business. He has systematized with unusual skill the clerical work of his office, the minor accounts of the university, and the business of the faculty. A multitude of practical details require the attention of a college president, many of them relating to things which ought to be transacted by lesser men—questions of repairs, of heating, of water-supply, of all sorts of things. Dr. Andrews has attended to them all with patience, method, and business ability. He has created a new organization of the faculty, whereby the bulk of its work is performed by committees, with great saving of the general time. He is, by the way, an admirable presiding officer, rapid and orderly in the transaction of business, watchful, disinterested, and courteous. When in rotation the college presidents and professors of New England met at Brown University, the skill with which Dr. Andrews presided over their deliberations was noticed as unusual. He is not an ideal presiding officer for an occasion de-

manding grace of manner, but he is eminently businesslike.

Many who read these words will say, "Then how can it be that Dr. Andrews has landed the university in financial difficulties so grave?" The proper reply is that he has not done so. There has been a great deal of newspaper misrepresentation regarding the financial aspects of his administration. He has always been ardent and hopeful, and not always perfectly prudent and economical. There have been deficits, though there is now a society of guarantors which meets them. But it is not true, and probably one could not find a member of the corporation well informed concerning the college finances who would assert that the real deficits of the last eight years have been greater in proportion to the total magnitude of the present revenues of the university than those of the eight years preceding his advent to the presidency.

"Why have a deficit at all?" the reader will say. A college is not a money-making concern, and must not manage its bookkeeping precisely as a commercial company does. The only object for which you have your college income is to spend it for educational purposes. If you don't spend it the public are entitled to complain. It rarely happens that a college which is doing its whole duty fails to fall a little short at the end of the year. Indeed, it is almost never good policy for a college which publishes its accounts not to exhibit a small deficit at the end of the year. If you don't show a small deficit no one gives you any money. But the financial reports of colleges are nearly as mysterious and need interpretation almost as much as those of most business corporations. This is why the writer used above the phrase "a real deficit." He has seen in a newspaper attack upon Dr. Andrews a deficit of thirty-four thousand dollars quoted for one of the years of his administration, nearly all of which deficit consisted of the money paid for the modernizing of one of the college dormitories—really an investment, and a paying one.

But more important than these questions of the details of college administration is the question of the leading ideas which have governed Dr. Andrews in his conduct of the college since 1889. In the first place, he has thoroughly believed in expansion; but the expansion which he has promoted has been gradual and based on solid ground. No kite-flying experiments have been tried, and at the end of the eight years there is nothing really unsubstantial about the institution. In fact, the 750 students of 1897 are doing better work, are in a more serious and fuller sense university students than were, upon the average, the 260 students of 1889. There has been no

puffing-up of windy bubbles, no addition of departments that look well on paper but add no substance, no attempting of the impossible. In 1889 there was the ordinary course for the degree of A.B. and a course for the degree of B.P. Students in the latter course were distinctly inferior, on the average, to those in the former course. At the present time the B.P. course has been made so much more solid that its students are nearly, if not quite, upon the level with the students for the A.B. degree. The college now has courses for the degree of mechanical engineer and civil engineer. In a city of such industrial importance as Providence and in a college with an exceptionally well-equipped physical laboratory, the addition of these technical courses is entirely warranted, and the young men who pursue them are a solid element of the university.

Post-graduate work at Brown University has increased very greatly. The late President Robinson eagerly advocated its inception. The carrying forward of this feature of the university work was not only defensible, but has been an achievement of the highest value to the university as a whole. It is defensible because Brown University is not situated as are many colleges whose friends rightly think that they ought to remain colleges and ought not to try to be anything else. It is placed in a large city. Just as many undergraduates come to Brown University because, living in Providence, they can attend a college situated there when it would be difficult or impossible for them to go elsewhere, so it is also with persons wishing to pursue graduate courses. There is a real demand for such courses in Providence. Accordingly they have been provided, and there has grown to be an important graduate department. At the time of Dr. Robinson's resignation there were not more than half a dozen graduate students. Now there are 110, and while many of these are teachers in Providence who can give but a part of their time to university work, no one questions the seriousness of the graduate students nor the solidity of the department. The enormous benefits which the presence of so many serious students confers upon the undergraduates and upon the whole intellectual life of the university are equally unquestionable. No professional departments have been established. Dr. Andrews would have been glad to establish a law school, as there is none in the State; but he has made such arrangements respecting chemical, biological, and legal teaching proper for a university that by appropriate selection of courses students can often make a beginning of their medical and legal education at Brown and proceed thence to the second year of the professional schools.

In the same process of wise and well-guarded expansion, Dr. Andrews has provided for a women's college in connection with the university. That there was a real need for this in Rhode Island has been proved by the growth of the institution in three or four years to a point at which there are 157 young women obtaining through it a college education. This institution is entirely Dr. Andrews' creation. As none of the funds of Brown University were applicable to such a purpose, he instituted it and has managed it, financially speaking, as an independent enterprise of his own. The university gives the young women their examinations, their degrees, and to a small extent their instruction. The rest is provided for after the familiar plan pursued by the Harvard professors at Radcliffe College. The gratitude of Rhode Island women for this benefaction of Dr. Andrews' has been abundantly manifested in the present crisis.

Being a man of genuine popular sympathies, Dr. Andrews warmly interested himself, soon after his election to the presidency, in the cause of university extension. While university extension has not prospered immensely in Rhode Island and is perhaps not destined to so great a career in America as its friends expected at one time, certainly what has been done in that direction in Rhode Island has benefited both the State and the university. It should not be forgotten that Dr. Andrews has been during these eight years a laborious, devoted, and stimulating professor of philosophy in the college. His influence here, if it could be separated from his influence as president, has perhaps been as great as that of any one professor. But of course that for which these eight years in the history of the university will especially be remembered is the rapid but perfectly sure and safe expansion which his vivifying influence, his originality and power and force of mind, and his administrative ability have enabled the college to achieve.

If something is needed to complete our picture of Dr. Andrews' personality, let him be imagined as a big, burly man, with a hearty cordiality of manner, not gifted with social graces, yet dignified and impressive. In his sturdiness, his energy, and his impulsive ardor there is something that reminds one of Martin Luther. But his nature is a serener one. He is never apparently angry, has no hatreds, is a man of unusual magnanimity, and conspicuously generous. This last trait has been shown again and again in college matters. Somewhat as Daniel Webster, in moments of social hilarity, was wont to express a willingness to pay off the debt of the United States, so Dr. Andrews, though it is supposed that he has virtually no income but his salary,

has always been ready to make large contributions whenever some important object of college development could not be secured by the application of the ordinary funds. The university has been to him an object of chivalrous devotion. Should his connection with it terminate at the present time it would no doubt leave a large void in his heart, however he may engross himself in some other pursuit.

Let us turn now to speak of those public activities outside the university which of late have been so much commented upon. With his remarkable energy and capacity for work, Dr. Andrews has been active in many good enterprises within the city of Providence. He has not spared himself whenever the Advance Club or the Union for Practical Progress have developed projects that seemed likely to be useful to the city, when the cause of charity organization demanded the attention of public-spirited men, and on similar occasions. He has felt it a duty to Brown University and to the public to interest himself actively in every good work in Providence. He has been much in request as a public speaker at important meetings of religious and philanthropic bodies and on topics of social reform. Sometimes he has spoken hastily and indiscreetly, but much oftener he has helped good causes by forcible words. What little he has done in the way of politics has been incident to this zeal for public utility and to that interest in finance which has remained with him since he was a professor of political economy. The cause of bimetallism he has advocated in books and articles. Prof. Henry B. Gardner, in two or three careful letters to the newspapers, has lately cleared away a great deal of misapprehension as to Dr. Andrews' public utterances in the cause of silver. He has shown that up to June, 1896, his position was substantially that of the late Francis A. Walker, his little book entitled "*An Honest Dollar*" being the chief of his publications on that subject. He was a delegate from the United States, appointed by a Republican President, to the International Bimetallic Conference held at Brussels in 1892. It is amusing to see many newspapers which occupy exactly the same position with respect to bimetallism that he did down to June, 1896, now representing him as having for years advocated the most dangerous theories in regard to this question of finance, though the bimetallism which he advocated was good enough Republican doctrine for many members of the party down to that time.

In June, 1896, when Dr. Andrews, broken down in health, was about to escape from the country for a year's absence, two graduates of Brown University in the West wrote to him ask-

ing whether in his opinion the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1 by the United States acting alone would be a safe policy for us to pursue. Dr. Andrews replied to each one that he thought it would be safe, giving his reasons. These were private letters, not intended for publication, though without injunctions that they be kept private. They were printed. These were the first pronouncements by him in favor of "free silver." So far as any one has yet shown, they were the only ones up to the time of that action of the trustees on June 17, 1897, which has occasioned so much comment. It is needless to say that this exhibits a course of action widely different from that which many newspapers have attributed to the president. Far from advocating the doctrines of free coinage in season and out of season during a long period, Dr. Andrews came to that position late; and on the whole it may be said that, acting under the sense of responsibility which a president of a university must always feel, he has been not only discreet, but reticent, in regard to the matter. That he was a delegate to the Chicago convention of last summer is not true. He has never made a speech in advocacy of "free silver," and does not think a college president ought to "take the stump."

Broken in health by overwork, Dr. Andrews, in July, 1896, went abroad for a year, the corporation generously granting him a year's leave of absence with full pay, in recognition of the services performed for the university. It was just before his return that the corporation passed the vote which has brought upon the college so unfortunate a situation.

The corporation of Brown University is a body of forty-eight gentlemen who usually meet but twice a year. About half of the forty-eight are business men, and of those who are at all active in the concerns of the university the greater number are closely identified with commercial interests in Providence. It is not unfair to say that the active members of the board would be likely to take a somewhat commercial view of college affairs. For some time they had been uneasy at the failure of the funds of the college to increase. A considerable number of them had been for some time indignant at incautious public utterances of Dr. Andrews, which seemed likely to repel gifts from the institution. Though the corporation warmly appreciated his services and merits, and probably only a few of them desired at present to bring about his resignation, there was irritation in the air. Under these circumstances, at the close of the long meeting on June 17, Hon. Joseph H. Walker, of Worcester, Congressman from Massachusetts, arose and stated in temperate language the con-

viction that the president's public utterances, especially on the free coinage of silver, had repelled gifts and were constantly injuring the university. Though the corporation are not wont, under ordinary circumstances, to follow the leadership of Congressman Walker, several of them openly approved his strictures. Many members of the corporation really supposed that Dr. Andrews had gone much farther than he had in the advocacy of free coinage, for his two letters had been given extensive publicity, without his knowledge, by their recipients. The discussion in the corporation resulted in the appointment of a committee of three charged "to confer with the president" on his return "in regard to the interests of the university." The vote was pretty certainly not intended to bring about the resignation of Dr. Andrews; perhaps it was a compromise devised by his friends to avoid falling in with the extremest views of those who at the meeting attacked him. Though no doubt the colorless words of the motion covered an intention to put pressure of some sort upon the president, the desire to be considerate toward him led it to be understood that the vote was to be kept strictly private. Much of the trouble which has since arisen has come from the fact that the story of the vote and the discussion was immediately given to the newspapers. Whether this was or was not done by Congressman Walker, who is generally understood to be a bitter enemy of Dr. Andrews, is in dispute. The committee appointed consisted of Col. William Goddard, Chancellor of the University, ex-Chief Justice Thomas Durfee, and Prof. Francis Wayland, Dean of the Yale Law School and son of President Wayland. As President Wayland had actively propagated for many years the doctrines of free trade, though Rhode Island was warmly protectionist, it was expected that Dean Wayland's action upon the committee would be conciliatory; but it must be said that the other two gentlemen, though men of great ability and cultivation, were not wholly adequate representatives of the board in respect to liberality of spirit. Dr. Andrews, on returning, took the natural precaution of requesting them to put in writing what they had to say to him. Their communication stated to him what they understood to be the intention of the corporation in passing its resolution. According to their account, the corporation professed the warmest regard for the president and desired a change in only one particular. They considered that his public utterances in behalf of the free coinage of silver had lost to the university gifts and legacies, and were likely to injure it in a pecuniary sense in the future. What they asked was that out of regard for the

interests of the university he should forbear to promulgate those views. Apparently, many members of the corporation have regretted that their committee based its action so boldly and exclusively upon the ground of pecuniary profit pure and simple. However, the committee had at that time had a month for consultation, and the public cannot be much blamed for presuming that they declared the mind of the board. It is to be hoped that they did not and that the board will find means, without discredit to its committee, to make manifest their unwillingness to be thought of as taking a sordid view of the question of the public utterances that the president of the college may with propriety make. To declare that a president may properly make public statement of his real views if it will attract gifts, but must not if it will repel them, surely does not furnish a good basis for an American university to stand on. Yet such was the plain inference to be drawn from this unfortunate letter. Dr. Andrews, conscious that if sometimes indiscreet in other matters, in that of the free coinage of silver he had kept far within the limits which college presidents usually set for themselves in respect to public utterance, immediately sent in his resignation, to take effect September 1, the date of the next meeting of the corporation. He could not comply with their desires, he said, without surrendering that reasonable liberty of utterance which presidents and professors of Brown had always, and in the absence of which endowments were of little worth. The question of academic freedom was thus fairly raised.

At this juncture the majority of the professors of the university issued their protest. Long accustomed to regard the spirit of free inquiry and discussion as vital to true university life and scientific progress, they perceived how frankly the letter of the committee of three subordinated these and other intellectual and spiritual interests of the institution to material considerations, and they believed that if no voice were raised in reply the university would for years suffer under the suspicion that the professors were muzzled and their teachings controlled by pecuniary considerations. Accordingly, two-thirds of the professors, mainly the younger two-thirds, sent to the corporation a respectful but explicit memorial, which soon after was sent as an open letter to the alumni and the press. In it they said what could be said as to the pecuniary results of Dr. Andrews' administration. They pointed out that though few gifts had been obtained, this was partly the effect of hard times, and that the other New England colleges had been receiving less of late than formerly; that Dr. Andrews had more than doubled the income of the university

by enormously increasing the receipts from students; and that though economy was necessary, the college was getting along financially about as usual. But they refused to admit that these ought to be the governing considerations in the management of a college *personnel*, and laid their chief stress on arguments for the necessity of a reasonable freedom of public utterance, declaring that the restraining a president from uttering political doctrines unpopular in the immediate neighborhood was not good for the community, not demanded by any supposed representative function on his part, and certainly not good for the inner life of the college itself.

Their protest seems, at the present moment of writing, to have had some effect on the corporation and a good deal of effect on the public, which had been in ignorance of some of the important facts; and some influential newspapers changed their ground more or less. The newspaper comments on this whole matter have from first to last been a curious study. The religious and semi-religious papers, always keenly alive to the higher interests of the nation, have almost without exception defended the position taken by President Andrews. The New York dailies, always keenly alive to the pecuniary aspects of everything, have mostly taken the opposite side, the most respectable of them moderately. Taking

the political press of the country as a whole, partisan views have largely prevailed, Republican or "gold" papers, mostly, upholding the corporation, Democratic or "silver" papers the president. But it is noteworthy that a considerable number of highly respected "gold" papers, among them the influential and sagacious *Boston Herald*, the *Springfield Republican*, and the *Chicago Post*, have warmly commended the course of the president and faculty. The effect of the whole affair on the silverite mind has been exceedingly bad. The *Providence Journal*, a respectable but crabbed sheet, has for years pursued Dr. Andrews with an unseemly rancor which has certainly advanced no good cause.

On the day on which most readers will see this REVIEW, some sort of conclusion to the whole matter will probably be reached. It is to be hoped that it will be not simply a conclusion, but a real solution, and a solution, too, that will repair some of the damage done to the old university, and make it plain that none of its teachers is to be muzzled so long as he does his duty. As Mr. Lincoln said, "Nothing is ever settled until it is settled right." A right settlement of this affair at Brown will help powerfully to secure in other universities that freedom without which they will lose public confidence and with it half their usefulness.

AN OPEN LETTER

ADDRESSED TO THE CORPORATION OF BROWN UNIVERSITY BY MEMBERS
OF THE FACULTY OF THAT INSTITUTION.

TO THE CORPORATION OF BROWN UNIVERSITY—

Gentlemen: The action taken by your honorable body with reference to President Andrews, at your meeting of June 17 last, aroused at the time much comment, both public and private. Its tendency seemed to us then to be a matter of grave moment; much more must it so appear to us at the present time, when it has been clearly interpreted by your committee, when the resignation of the president has followed as a direct and natural consequence, and when, in the public opinion of New England, upon whose good-will we are dependent, the university stands in so unfortunate a position. If we are not mistaken, more is involved than the exigencies of a single institution or the fortunes of a single educator; but the situation of Brown University and its relations to its president are, taken alone, topics of high importance, which compel our consideration. In discussing them we are, we trust, not unmindful of the courtesy which a professor owes to the governing body of his college, nor of the gratitude due for the generous services of its members. We shall hope neither to misrepresent their course nor to seem wanting in respect for their opinions. But we believe that the present crisis involves interests so weighty as to warrant us in

addressing to your honorable body a respectful but earnest memorial and remonstrance.

It is well understood that at the meeting named no vote was passed relating explicitly to the utterances of President Andrews on public affairs. But three members were designated as a committee to confer with him, upon his return, "in regard to the interests of the university." The meaning of these words is perfectly well understood; it is indeed freely acknowledged by members of your body that the committee were expected, under the terms of the resolution appointing them, to remonstrate with the president concerning his utterances upon public affairs (notably on the free coinage of silver) as injurious to the pecuniary interests of the university. Your committee, in the communication which it has addressed to him, has explicitly declared, not only that this was the intent of your vote, but that it was its sole intent; that you desired to express no criticism of his administration and made no other suggestion than that he should forbear to promulgate his views on the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1, lest such promulgation repel gifts which might otherwise be received. It is not alleged that he has made speeches or written articles in advocacy of those views;

the promulgation from which he is asked to refrain has consisted in the writing of letters, in answer to correspondents, which those correspondents have been left at liberty to publish. Believing it impossible to surrender this minimum of freedom of expression without doing damage to Brown University and to the general interests of university education, the president has chosen rather to resign his office than to comply with your suggestions.

It was not intended that the vote of the corporation should be made public. The mode of procedure adopted was plainly more considerate than any more explicit and public action. Yet the fact remains, and is now everywhere known, that the corporation of Brown University, at one of their regular meetings, took action, the object of which was to suggest to the president a limitation of his activities in public affairs, and in some degree to restrain him from expressing himself, as a citizen, upon topics which are of interest to every citizen. Private and individual remonstrance is one thing; action of the sort described, by the body which appoints presidents, is, we submit, a very different thing. It is open to the gravest objections, and rests upon a theory which, if extensively acted upon, would eat the heart out of our educational institutions—the theory that the material growth of a university is of more importance than independence of thought and expression on the part of its president and professors, and that boards of trustees have, as such, the right to suggest limitations upon such independence. It is not to be believed, and we are far from believing, that this theory, in all its amplitude, was present to the minds of your honorable body on the occasion named and distinctly accepted by them. But the logical connection between that theory and the concrete action taken is on consideration so plain, and has found so complete a lodgment in the public mind, to the manifest injury of the university, that we respectfully beg you to take again into consideration the principles involved, and at your ensuing meeting to take that action which alone can permanently relieve Brown University from all suspicion of illiberality or bias.

Recognizing that the corporation have not been alone in thinking and saying that Dr. Andrews' freedom of speech ought to be restrained, we beg leave to combat the proposition, wherever and by whomsoever maintained, that official action tending to restrain his expressions on public affairs is justified. We desire to show, first, that it cannot be justified on the lower ground of pecuniary necessity and advantage; and, secondly, that it lacks all justification when considered from that higher point of view from which the educational institutions of a great country ought always to be regarded.

We address ourselves first to the pecuniary question. We do not for a moment admit that it stands first in importance. On the contrary, we regard it as distinctly subordinate. We enter upon it only in a defensive spirit. The statement has been made, in public and in private, until it is believed by many, that the administration of President Andrews has been in a pecuniary sense unsuccessful, and this alleged want of success has been attributed to the course of the president in advocating financial doctrines unacceptable to possible benefactors of the college. For the most part this inference rests on pure assumption. That some money has been held back for such reasons is very likely. But that large sums of money, which would otherwise have been

bestowed on Brown University, have been kept back by the owners' aversion to the president's opinions on silver, is surely open to question. Lavish gifts to public institutions are not usual in this community, and never have been. Many other institutions could be named, of which the presiding officers have taken no part in political discussion, but which, nevertheless, have received little money. From the year of the first printed report of the university treasurer down to that of the accession of Dr. Andrews, there was never a year in which the invested funds of the university were increased by one-third as much as the average annual increase of the funds of Harvard during the present generation. We submit that it is not just to hold President Andrews responsible for a condition of things which prevailed before he came, and which prevails likewise in so many other endowed institutions in Rhode Island.

But, dismissing empty speculations as to what might have happened, is it a fact that the administration of President Andrews has been, in a pecuniary sense, unfortunate for the college? Your honorable body are, without doubt, the best and the final judges of the financial success of any administration. Yet we think it not improper to draw attention to three considerations which may not be perpetually kept in mind, but which are worthy of regard.

1. Partly by reason of the hard times, partly for other reasons, donations to New England colleges have, in general, been slackening of late, and the president is fairly entitled to have this fact taken into consideration. The productive funds of the other colleges in New England, taken all together, increased less than half as much per cent. in these last eight years as in the eight years preceding.

2. But we, meanwhile, have been more fortunate than they in the possession of a compensating source of supply, due to the unprecedented increase in the number of our students. The annual receipts of the university are now more than twice what they were when Dr. Andrews came to the presidency. If income be a fit criterion, he is entitled to be regarded as, in a pecuniary sense, the greatest benefactor Brown University has ever had. More than half its income is, beyond a doubt, due to him and his labors, for while in the year ending April 15, 1889, the total income of the university was but \$67,064, in the year ending April 15, 1897, it was \$159,828. The amount annually derived from invested funds has, indeed, during these eight years, increased but little. But the amount of money annually received from students, which before his accession, it is well known, had long been practically stationary, has steadily risen from \$23,358 to \$101,464.

3. This record of financial growth unexampled in the history of Brown University cannot successfully be discredited by saying that since what a student pays does not cover the expense of teaching him, the more students we have the worse off we are. The accounts for the last financial year, in which there was no deficit in the Common Fund, point to another conclusion. They show that within certain limits, apparently not yet passed, to teach a large body of students costs less *per capita* than to teach a small body, and that our resources are not yet proved to be inadequate to our task, though our rate of growth during the past eight years has been three times as great as the general rate of growth of the other New England colleges.

But we are far from basing the demonstration of President Andrews' right to speak his mind, chiefly

upon the financial successes of his administration. A writer in the *Providence Journal* declares that "in these very practical days of the closing years of the nineteenth century, the final test of a college president is his ability to draw funds toward the treasury of the institution over which he presides." But those who are accustomed to observe and reflect upon the issues of university education, those who have felt its value and perceived the real sources of its power, know well that the final test is at the end of the century what it was at the beginning of the century, what it has been in all preceding centuries—the existence or the non-existence of that personal power which, with money or without money, can take hold of an institution and lift it from a lower to a higher plane, which can seize upon the imaginations and the moral natures of young men and transform them into something more scholarly, and manly, and noble. No one inquires whether Dr. Thomas Arnold increased the endowment of Rugby. No one holds that the importance of Benjamin Jowett as Master of Balliol is to be measured by the amount of money he collected for his college. No one imagines that the greatness and the success of Francis Wayland are to be measured in dollars and cents. No one believes that the ability of President Eliot to raise money can be compared, in its value to Harvard University, with those higher qualities which have made him during twenty-eight years so great a power in the educational world. As well contend that the "debt-raiser" is the one valuable type of clergyman. Can it then be contended that Mr. Worldly Wiseman or Mr. Facing-both-ways, if sufficiently skillful in getting money, would have been a better president than Mr. Great-heart, who has made the institution, for the first time, a university in something more than name? We, at any rate, do not think so; nor, we are persuaded, do the alumni and corporation of Brown University.

If restraint of President Andrews cannot be justified on these lower grounds of pecuniary results, still less defensible does it appear when viewed from higher grounds. The general arguments for freedom of speech it is not necessary to repeat, least of all in Rhode Island, where the right to such freedom has for two hundred and sixty years been cherished with peculiar jealousy. That right is in general conceded, and the burden of proof rests upon those who would maintain an exception to its application in the case of the presidents and professors of colleges. It is even conceded that, in the general case, college professors may with propriety give public utterance to their political opinions. Your honorable body have affirmed in the most striking manner the propriety of their doing so, by granting a member of the faculty leave of absence during seven weeks of the last autumn term, in order that he might make Republican political speeches in the West. That which the corporation have been urged to discourage is, then, the public statement of political opinions adverse to those held by most of its members, or by most of the influential citizens of Rhode Island. The rightfulness and expediency of such restraint demand, we conceive, most serious discussion.

First, is it a good thing for the community that the public statement of unpopular opinions or opinions judged erroneous should be restrained? The answer to the question rests to-day where Milton rested it in the *Areopagitica*: "And though all the winds of doctrine were let loose to play upon the earth, so Truth be in the field, we do injuriously by licensing and prohibiting

to misdoubt her strength. Let her and Falsehood grapple; who ever knew Truth put to the worse in a free and open encounter?" To this confident belief of magnanimous minds that truth is constantly safe, add the experience of mankind. That experience has shown that no man or body of men is wise enough to pick out the doctrines that had better be suppressed, and that the attempt to suppress doctrines only gives them increase of strength. Numberless instances have given practical demonstration to the principle which Milton proclaimed, and have convinced mankind that their real interests require that error, or seeming error, be met with the weapons of discussion and not of repression. But if we accept the general principle that unpopular heresies ought not to be suppressed, how can we consistently attempt, here and there, for the alleged good of the community, to make exceptions? Even though the doctrines of "free silver" be the blackest and most foolish of heresies, we do the commonwealth no service if we attempt, by official pressure, to close up their channels of expression.

Secondly, is the president of an institution under obligation to conform his public expressions to the views of its trustees or of the community in which it is placed? It has been said in the public prints that Dr. Andrews has had no right to "misrepresent" the views of the corporation or of Rhode Islanders. As for the corporation, we do not enter into the question, for we suppose that that body may at any time, if it chooses, readily clear itself of misunderstanding as to its political views. But in what sense has it been obligatory on Dr. Andrews to "represent" the community? The community did not elect him and has had no official relation to him. If it is the duty of the head of a university, in a State like this, to conform to the political views of the majority of its inhabitants, what is his duty in a doubtful State? Must he whiffle around, like the Vicar of Bray, taking care always to side with the majority? There are Western State universities where just such conformity has been exacted, and the disastrous results are well known. It has not been supposed that such demands of political compliance were made upon the old and well-settled colleges in the most conservative portion of the land. It is useless to argue that there is "no politics" in the present movement, on the ground that the question of the free coinage of silver is a moral question. Every man is prone to think that while a political matter about which he cares little is politics, one about which he cares a great deal is simply a matter of right and wrong, because he is right and his opponent wrong. The most expert and trusted of those professors of political economy who take the opposite side of the silver question from that sustained by Dr. Andrews would, we are confident, unite in declaring that it is a question of public policy, which, whatever its moral element, is open to discussion in the same sense as other questions of public policy. If presidents of universities are to be free to speak only on political questions that are not also ethical, but in respect to political questions which have an ethical element ought to "represent" their communities, limited indeed will be their freedom. In fact, it is not the proper function of a university to "represent" or to advocate any favored set of political, any more than of religious, doctrines, but rather to inspire young men with the love of truth and knowledge, and, with freedom and openness of mind, to teach how these are to be attained. It is to give a liberal, not a dogmatic education.

Thirdly, is it for the good of Brown University itself that its president should be officially restrained? The question, in the light of all we have said, almost answers itself. On the one hand we have the problematical or imaginary addition of a certain number of dollars. On the other hand we have, throughout the whole intellectual life of the university, the deadening influence of known or suspected repression. Our students will know or suspect that on certain subjects the silence of their president has been purchased or imposed. If the resignation of Dr. Andrews is accepted, the burden and the stigma fall on his successor. We conceive that it will be hard to persuade a man of such independence as characterized Wayland, and Sears, and Robinson, and Andrews to accept the difficult task under these new conditions. If our young men suspect what we have intimated concerning his public utterances, they will suspect it of his class-room instruction. If they suspect it of the president, they will suspect it of the professors. Confidence in the instruction of the university is fatally impaired. The history of American college administration, from the Dartmouth College case down, furnishes only too many examples of the demoralization which results from political interference and from the suspicion of bondage. Better by far to follow the example of Harvard, the mental freedom of whose president is not only tolerated, but prized; better by far to imitate the authorities of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, who valued Francis Walker too highly, even if they had not known him too well, to think of checking his utterances in the cause of bimetallism; or, rather, let us say, better by far to follow the nobler traditions of Brown University, within and without whose walls Francis Wayland, in a protectionist community, for so many years taught without restraint the doctrines of free trade.

In all that we have said in this memorial and remonstrance we have endeavored to keep constantly in mind the point of view of the corporation and to do the fullest justice to their motives and their acts. We have addressed ourselves rather against arguments and representations than against any persons. We do not speak in defense of the president's financial views, for nearly all of us are, so far as we understand the question, opposed to them. We do not speak because of our personal regard for him or our admiration for the great work he has done for the university and the sacrifices he has made in its behalf. In any cause less sacred than that of freedom of speech and thought we should not have spoken at all. But we believe that invaluable interests of the college and of all colleges in the land require us to make this protest and to vindicate for President Andrews and for all presidents and professors a perfect liberty of utterance upon all public questions. Inter-

ested in the most obvious manner in the material prosperity of the institution, more anxious than any others can be for its development and expansion, we nevertheless would not see its prosperity advanced, and we do not believe that its real prosperity *can* be advanced, by private suppression and politic compliance; for we are convinced that the life-blood of a university is not money, but freedom.

The acceptance of the resignation of President Andrews under the existing circumstances would, we are confident, be publicly regarded as a denial of the principles we have sought to maintain. It would stamp this institution, in the eyes of the country, as one in which freedom of thought and expression is not permitted when it runs counter to the views generally accepted in the community or held by those from whom the university hopes to obtain financial support. The undersigned, therefore, members of the faculty of Brown University, respectfully urge upon your honorable body that the president's resignation be not accepted, and that the corporation express clearly to the world the determination to maintain in this ancient university, in the fullest measure, its honorable and priceless traditions of academical freedom.

BENJAMIN F. CLARKE.
J. FRANKLIN JAMESON.
HENRY B. GARDNER.
HERMON C. BUMPUS.
COURTNEY LANGDON.
JOHN M. MANLY.
OTIS E. RANDALL.
GEORGE G. WILSON.
EDMUND B. DELABARRE.
J. IRVING MANATT.
WALTER C. BRONSON.
WALTER G. EVERETT.
H. L. KOOPMAN.
CARL BARUS.
HENRY P. MANNING.
HAMMOND LAMONT.
JOHN E. HILL.
JAMES Q. DEALEY.
WALTER B. JACOBS.
CHARLES F. KENT.
EDWARD C. BURNHAM.
A. DEF. PALMER, JR.
ALBERT D. MEAD.
LOUIS F. SNOW.

July 31, 1897.

(It is proper to add that Professors Upton, Sears, and Munro are not at present in this country, and that the above list of names includes no persons of lesser rank than assistant professors—that is, none but members of the faculty in the stricter sense.)



SIMON POKAGON ON NAMING THE INDIANS.



THE future of the Indian race in the United States is a question that possesses an interest out of all proportion to the numerical strength of the surviving tribes. The Indians were the possessors of the country when our forefathers came, and they must ever hold a large place in our history and our literature. Those who remain are entitled to the most considerate treatment, under the guidance of the best intelligence. They have been too long the victims of our spoilsmen in politics and of ignorant and inconsiderate methods. A few months ago we published an article prepared for this REVIEW by the pen of Prof. Frank Terry, of the Crow Agency Indian School, in which was shown the serious wrong that is being perpetrated against the Indians by the haphazard and grotesque manner of their renaming for purposes of legal identity as landholders and citizens. In their tribal state the Indians are without a permanent name, their modes of designation bearing no resemblance whatever to our plan of a fixed patronymic which passes from one generation to another.

In an article contributed to the *Forum*, which we summarize in another department of this number of the REVIEW, Mr. Simon Pokagon makes it clear that the destiny of the American Indians is ultimate absorption into the white race. Mr. Pokagon

read Professor Terry's article when it appeared, and several weeks ago sent to us the following very pertinent and instructive farther comment on the subject of Indian names. We are sorry to observe by the newspapers that this distinguished Pottawatomie chieftain has fallen very ill since his letter for this magazine and his article for the *Forum* were written, and that some fears are entertained lest he may not recover. Simon Pokagon is one of the most remarkable men of our time. He has been connected in an official capacity with the work of the Government's Indian industrial schools, and his great eloquence, his sagacity, and his wide range of information mark him as a man of exceptional endowments. To know such a man as Simon Pokagon is to understand the remarkable ability of some of the Indian chieftains whose names occur in the earlier annals of our country. The average reservation Indian does not seem to bear out the romantic traditions of the "noble red man;" but under more favorable circumstances, in the earlier days, the fine qualities of the Indian were no myth, but a fact recognized and acknowledged by many a white pioneer. Simon Pokagon's father was the Pottawatomie chief who sold the land upon which the city of Chicago now stands, and the present chieftain—whose letter is herewith printed as the second contribution he has made to this magazine—was one of the most honored and conspicuous of the guests at the World's Fair. His present home is in Hartford, Mich.

POKAGON'S LETTER.

EDITOR OF REVIEW OF REVIEWS—

My Dear Sir: I have read with much interest the article in the March number of your magazine on "Naming the Indians," which I have regarded for many years as of vital importance to the future of our race. The instructions therein given by T. J. Morgan, Commissioner of Indian Affairs, to Indian agents and superintendents of government Indian schools, I consider, in view of our citizenship, of the utmost importance, and ought to have been construed as obligatory upon teachers and superintendents in government schools in naming their pupils, as to naming Indian employees to be appointed as policemen, judges, teamsters, laborers, etc. In looking over the names published in the article referred to of pupils at the Crow Agency boarding school, Montana, I really felt in my heart that most of their surnames, translated from their language into English unexplained, might well be taken for a menagerie of monstrosities. Think of it—such names for girls as Olive Young-heifer, Lottie Grandmother's-knife, Kittie Medicine-tail, Mary Old-jack-rabbit, Lena Old-bear, Louisa Three-wolves, and Ruth Bear-in-the-middle. And then such names for boys as Walter Young-jack-rabbit, Homer Bull-tongue, Robert Yellow-tail, Antoine No-

hair-on-his-tail, Hugh Ten-bears, Harry White-bear, Levi Yellow-mule, etc.

In looking carefully over the above list, I thought in my own heart, what if those girls should request me to give them some fatherly advice as to which one of these boys each girl could marry, so that all might in some respect improve their maiden names? The best I could suggest (and that is very unsatisfactory) would be to have Miss Ruth Bear-in-the-middle marry and become Mrs. Ruth Yellow-mule, Miss Louisa Three-wolves to become Mrs. Louisa Ten-bears, Miss Kittie Medicine-tail to become Mrs. Kittie Yellow-tail, Miss Lena Old-bear to become Mrs. Lena White-bear, and Miss Olive Young-heifer to become Mrs. Olive Bull-tongue, which would leave Miss Grandmother's-knife no choice but to marry Antoine No-hair-on-his-tail; but doubtless she would rather carry Grandmother's-knife all her days, living and dying an old maid, than to accept of such an outlandish name. Such names are ridiculous and shameful in the extreme, and I hope and pray they may be discarded as soon as possible. Indian names are generally a sort of titles expressive of some act done by the person, either good or bad, subject to change according to the acts of the individual, and by native custom were never inherited by our children, hence should never be translated into English, to persecute them with a name they abhor, well knowing it creates a prejudice against them.

Let us take, for example, "Chicago," which is derived from the Indian word she-gog (skunk), lacative case, she-gog-ong, or won—hence the name "Chicago." In and of itself it is a pleasant word, and the pride of America. Our fathers so called it on account of many skunks, as well as wild onions and skunk's cabbage that once grew there. Had the early white settlers translated it into English, the millions who breathe the morning vapor that rises from the modern Chicago River would almost instinctively exclaim, "This city was properly named;" and in my humble opinion it never would have reached its present greatness, in consequence of which the World's Fair never would have been held there. Be that as it may, it is certainly very important that any one starting out in a new life should have a name as free from meaning as paper unwritten upon.

As stated in the article referred to, many bad mistakes are made in translating Indian names into English. Take, for example, "Michigan," my native State. I have seen in some histories the word meant in the Algonquin dialect "Fish weir or trap," which its shape suggested. It appears the historian stopped not to consider that the natives had no correct idea of the real shape of the lake or of "fish weirs or traps" as used by the whites. In our language "Mi-shi-gan" simply meant monstrous lake. Translate it into English and we have for our State a monstrous lake. The renowned chief Me-che-kau-nau (Great Turtle) is called in United States history Little Turtle.

When a young man I attended school at Winsburgh, Ohio, with a son of an Aweiva chief, "Nlack-a-de-pe-neesy" (Black Hawk). Some teacher of authority in languages, learning that ma-kaw-te as a qualifier meant "black," and that "pe-nay-shen" meant "bird" in Ottawa dialect, called him Andrew Blackbird, which to him was very humiliating. I speak of these cases because I realize that the points in the article referred to are well taken along this line and should be well considered. When the Po-ka-gon Pottawattamie band were converted to Christianity, my father, who was chief at the time, was named by the priest Leopold Pokagon and I was named Simon Pokagon. Had we been given a new surname my father would have deemed the act downright robbery. The same rule was applied to each member of our band, all being given respectable Christian names, retaining the Indian surnames. Those who were old enough to take pride in their name were permitted to make a choice. Several names would be suggested, out of which they would select the one that pleased them best. As the names were decided upon they were entered in the church book with the Indian surnames. If too long, they were shortened by leaving off one or more of the last syllables of the name, which was an ancient practice of our own people when words or names for any cause became unreasonably long. Our band received several annuities from the Government prior to 1860, at which time we received thirty-nine thousand dollars, partial payment of moneys due from the Government on the sale of Chicago by my father as chief of the Pokagon band. Last autumn we received the final payment of one hundred and fifty thousand dollars. Different bands and tribes, through shrewd and able attorneys, sought to impose upon us by sharing the moneys due the Pokagon band; but owing to the church records above referred to and our practice of following the rules of white men having each family bear the surname of the husband, we were enabled to show who were members of our band and who were not, thereby saving time, money and much trouble. It would appear to me that if for any cause teachers and superintendents in government employ should find it difficult to carry out the reasonable request of "naming our Indians," an efficient committee should be appointed by the Government to cooperate with them in carrying out a measure which lies at the very threshold of Indian citizenship.

It has afforded me much pleasure in life to know that the rivers, lakes and nearly all the waterways of America retain the names our fathers gave, and that those of our race who have long since gone to the spirit land have been honored by having a majority of the States of this mighty Union given Indian names pure and simple.

Hoping this letter may be considered in a spirit akin to the one prompting me to address you,

I remain sincerely yours,

SIMON POKAGON.



THE SINE QUA NON OF CAUCUS REFORM.

BY RALPH M. EASLEY.

(Secretary of the Chicago Civic Federation.)

IT is generally admitted that the nominating caucus or primary election affords the only natural, practical way for large bodies of voters to concentrate on any question. The town-meeting plan is the original method and is still used in small localities; but for the voters in large cities like New York and Chicago to meet in general mass-meeting would be a physical impossibility. Hence the evolution of the caucus or primary. Dr. C. C. P. Clark, of Oswego, N. Y., who has made a specialty of this subject, states the whole case in the following language:

It is an aphorism of common sense that when men are to act in unison toward the accomplishment of a common object, such as the selection of a public functionary, it is absolutely necessary that they should be assembled and hold conference together; and, as corollary to this, that when their number is too great for such assemblage or for orderly conference therein, they must in some way be divided up for the purpose of such meeting and conference into suitable sections for the selection of delegates or representatives, and complete through them, assembled in convention, the work in hand.

That this system has degenerated into a machine for doing the will of the ward "heeler" and political "boss" is not to the discredit of the "heeler" or "boss" so much as to the discredit of the good citizen who, by his own inaction, has permitted these gentlemen to expand into the whole thing. In fact, under present conditions, if it were left to the average good citizen or business man, the governmental machinery would run down and go out of business; for the active preliminary work of nominating officers under our law and customs must be attended to or there will be no officers. The "pernicious activity" of the ward boss is, therefore, far better than no activity.

What is the condition of the primary to-day? And can the difficulties be remedied? Hon. John E. Milholland, the brilliant leader of the Republican anti-machine forces in New York, in the *North American Review* says:

Fraud and corruption have been eliminated from the work of Election Day to an extent that would have evoked endless derision had it been predicted ten years ago, but much of the evil formerly incidental to Election Day has been transmitted to the primaries. The party caucus or primary is to-day the danger-point in American politics. From it flow the evil influences that make unworthy nominations habitual, the machine possible, and bossism inevitable. It is a sad confession

to make that after all the efforts expended to purify the primaries here in Chicago and in most of the large cities of the country, they are to-day more dangerously corrupt than ever before in history. Mr. William Brookfield, who has been repeatedly chairman of the Republican State and also of the Republican County Committee, expresses an absolute conviction when he declares that New York politics were never put upon such a low level as to-day. There is really no limit to the rascality. It is as bold as any in which Tammany ever engaged at the general elections.

The primaries in Chicago have been a stench in the nostrils of all decent citizens for years, revolving around the ward central committeemen, who not only fix the place and select the judges and clerks, but not infrequently make out the credentials for the delegation the night before. This delegation, in turn, reflects the committeemen; and this mutual-admiration circle continues to do business at the same stand year after year. The futility of going before the committee on credentials appointed by a convention so constituted is apparent.

Evidence secured by the Chicago Civic Federation shows, among other shameless things, that in many wards the custom has prevailed of boarding up the front of the polling booth, leaving a hole just large enough to hand in the ballot seven feet from the floor, so that the voter could not tell to whom he gave his ballot or whether it was deposited in the ballot-box or the cuspidor. To now advise good citizens to go to such primaries or rail at them for not doing so is a reflection on their intelligence.

At a Cook County convention held in Chicago in 1896 the following is the make-up of the convention as analyzed by the detectives for the *Eagle* and published by that paper September 19, 1896: Of the delegates, those who have been on trial for murder numbered 17; sentenced to the penitentiary for murder or manslaughter and served sentence, 7; served terms in the penitentiary for burglary, 36; served terms in the penitentiary for picking pockets, 2; served term in the penitentiary for arson, 1; ex-Bridewell and jail-birds identified by detectives, 84; keepers of gambling houses, 7; keepers of houses of ill-fame, 2; convicted of mayhem, 3; ex-prize fighters, 11; pool-room proprietors, 2; saloon keepers, 265; lawyers, 14; physicians, 3; grain dealers, 2; political employees, 148; hatter, 1; stationer, 1; contractors, 4; grocer, 1; sign painter, 1; plumbers, 4; butcher, 1; druggist,

1; furniture supplies, 1; commission merchants, 2; ex-policemen, 15; dentist, 1; speculators, 2; justices of the peace, 3; ex-constable, 1; farmers, 6; undertakers, 3; no occupations, 71. Total delegates, 723.

Party managers, under the present circumstances, have no right to complain of the organization of citizens' unions in New York or municipal parties in Chicago or Boston. These are but the legitimate outgrowths of and protests against the "brace primary" system, with its stuffed ballot-boxes, doctored tally-sheets, and fraudulent credentials, and while I believe that these agencies can accomplish little permanent good, yet they are apparently the only means at present through which an outraged electorate can be heard.

SOME GROUNDS FOR HOPE.

If the universal corruption of primaries or caucuses were not well known, illustrations from all our large cities might be given. But however bad the primary now is, it is no worse than the elections once were. And when we consider the great advance made in ten years with the Australian ballot and in the civil service, it inspires the hope that the reform of the primary can be brought about if the people intelligently organize to obtain it. In fact, great advance has already been made. It was only a few years ago that the caucus and primary were regarded as purely voluntary organizations with which the law should not in any way interfere. Now there is a general recognition of the right of the State to provide for the government of primaries.

Mayor Quincy, of Boston, in a letter referring to the successful efforts of the friends of caucus reform last winter in that city, says:

I am a very strong and convinced believer in the idea that the law should regulate political parties and their caucuses and conventions, giving the member of a party the same protection in the enjoyment of his rights which is given to the voter at the polls. We have been moving quite rapidly in this direction in Massachusetts in recent years. The beneficial results of caucus reform in stimulating the interest of the voters and calling out a large attendance at the caucuses has already been amply demonstrated in this city, and public opinion here is unquestionably in favor of carrying the regulation of caucuses to the full extent.

There is also a gratifying growth of sentiment among leaders of men from all walks of life in the direction of the idea that "the primary is," as the late David Dudley Field has said, the "pivot of reform." It is surprising to find that church organizations like the Christian Endeavor and Epworth League have advanced much farther along the line of practical politics than the average municipal reformer. The labor leaders have

stood for years on the practical platform. Within a week letters have been received from such men as John Willis Baer, National Secretary of the Christian Endeavor Society; E. A. Schell, National Organizer of the Epworth League; W. B. Prescott, President International Typographical Union; M. M. Garland, President Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers, and P. J. McGuire, National President of the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners, all expressing themselves strongly on the importance and necessity of primary-election reform.

WHAT HAS BEEN DONE.

In twenty States laws more or less stringent have been enacted. But, with all laws, experience is required to determine what will prove most effective. The experience of the last five years is teaching the advocates of this reform what is necessary to secure fair primaries. Last winter new measures or amendments to old statutes were introduced in a number of Legislatures. A committee of the Allied Political Clubs of New York appeared before the Legislature at Albany urging a measure for primary-election reform, and the Boston workers secured important amendments to their caucus law.

In Illinois, Senator Charles H. Crawford, chairman of the Senate Committee on Elections and also the author of the present primary act of this State, introduced a bill which places the primary-election machinery under the control of the Board of Election Commissioners of Cook County (Chicago); provides that the regular election judges and clerks shall conduct the same, the expenses to be paid by the county; that no party can hold a convention unless the delegates thereto are elected under this law; and, what is still more to the point, provides such severe penalties for interfering with the rights of a delegate who has once received his credentials from the sworn officers of his election precinct that a credential committee of a convention which should undertake to undo the work and thwart the will of the people as expressed would find itself behind the bars.

This bill was fought desperately by some of the leaders of both machines, but Governor Tanner and National Committeeman T. N. Jamieson, of the Republican side, actively favored it. Leading Democrats, ex-Governor Altgeld, of the regular Democratic organization, and Judge Adams A. Goodrich, chairman of the Sound Money organization, also gave it their cordial support. After a hard fight Senator Crawford succeeded in securing its passage by the Senate. It then went to the House, and by every known

legislative device was opposed by members whose powers as political "bosses" the bill, if passed, would seriously curtail. Its friends, however, pushed it to third reading in the House the last night of the session, but it could not be reached on the calendar until 3 o'clock in the morning—the hour of final adjournment—by which time many country members, friends of the bill, had been wearied out and left, not leaving the constitutional majority to pass the bill. However, the friends of the measure, by their gallant fight, got before the State the condition of things in Chicago and won the hearty support of Governor Tanner, who, being petitioned, is now considering the calling of a special session of the Legislature this winter to enact several measures, one of which will undoubtedly be a new primary-election law for Illinois.

WHAT CAN BE DONE WITHIN THE PARTIES ?

I do not contend that independent voters should, under present conditions in our large cities, rush into existing party primaries for municipal elections; but rather that a fraction of the effort that would be required to divorce national and State politics from municipal matters will, if applied at the right point, place the old parties on a plane where they could secure good nominations. And certainly the most radical municipal party advocate cannot object to the old parties nominating good men for aldermen, for the main tenet of his creed is that it is immaterial whether an officer be a Democrat or a Republican. To the party voter who wants good government—and this means a large majority of both parties—it would mean that his voice would be heard all along the line from constable to President. It will be urged that an appeal to "go to the primaries" is utterly futile because the people cannot be induced to attend. As there is yet no law in force in any of the large cities that will secure fair primaries, there has consequently been no real test of the plan. And further, such contention is tantamount to saying that the people cannot and will not save themselves when they can. When we get to that point, it is only a step farther to declare republican government a hopeless failure.

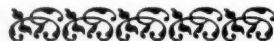
If the people cannot be induced to do their duty under a plan with which they are familiar, there is no assurance or likelihood that they will do it under a plan as unnatural and fraught with as many inherent difficulties as surround the "separation" plan. In any event, leaders of reform thought and well-wishers of party organization have no right to find fault until they have done what they can to make it possible for the people to be heard.

PRACTICAL STEPS.

Education of the people along the lines of practical politics has been woefully neglected. The coming generations should be better provided for. In all high schools and colleges "practical politics" should be taught the boys and young men. A course of civics that does not teach the value of caucuses, primaries, and conventions and how to conduct them is vitally defective. Every citizen should be a politician.

The duty of those who believe that the stability of our republican form of government depends upon the purification of these fountains of political power is to organize with vigor on this issue alone. In this connection it may be stated that arrangements are now being made for a conference to be held in New York in October or November at which will be considered: first, the framing of a primary-election law that will supply the defects of existing legislation; second, the arranging for presenting the subject to such Legislatures as meet next winter; and, third, the awakening of public sentiment upon this question.

The elective franchise is a sacred heritage. It is more than a mere modern convenience and is vastly greater than a social privilege to be worn, as one's best garments, on state occasions only. Its defenders should be drawn from every walk of life. Good citizenship is not alone municipal citizenship, but State citizenship and national citizenship as well. Many are clamoring to help strike the shackles from poor Cuba; but Cuba needs patriots not more than does our own country to-day, and yet our shackles are of our own forging.



LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE NEW "SAYINGS OF CHRIST."

EARLY in the present summer the newspapers contained accounts of an interesting discovery recently made by Messrs. Grenfell and Hunt, of the Egypt Exploration Fund. This was a papyrus written on each side in Greek uncials and containing a number of *logia*, or sayings, of Jesus. This single leaf was found among several hundred other papyri in some rubbish-heaps at Behnesa, on the edge of the Libyan desert, one hundred and twenty miles south of Cairo. One page was quite easily decipherable, while the other, though less distinct, could be made out with some difficulty.

The Greek sentences are thus translated by the discoverers:

1. . . . and then shalt thou see clearly to cast out the mote that is in thy brother's eye.
2. Jesus saith, Except ye fast to the world, ye shall in no wise find the kingdom of God; and except ye keep the Sabbath, ye shall not see the Father.
3. Jesus saith, I stood in the midst of the world, and in the flesh was I seen by them, and I found all men drunken, and none found I athirst among them, and my soul grieveth over the sons of men, because they are blind in their heart . . .
4. . . . poverty . . .
5. Jesus saith, Wherever there are . . . and there is one . . . alone, I am with him. Raise the stone and there thou shalt find me, cleave the wood and there am I.
6. Jesus saith, A prophet is not acceptable in his own country, neither doth a physician work cures upon them that know him.
7. Jesus saith, A city built upon the top of a high hill, and established, can neither fall nor be hid.
8. . . . unto thy face (or presence) . . .

A writer in the *Biblical World* for August, commenting on these sayings, suggests that while No. 2, as translated by the editors, is strongly Jewish, it may be intended to be taken somewhat metaphorically.

"No. 3 is so complete as to make its meaning unmistakable. It is certainly novel, but hardly has 'the genuine ring' of which the editors speak. It rather sounds like many another extra-canonical saying of Jesus, in which a saying or thought of the canonical gospels is overlaid or otherwise changed by an attempt at pseudographic or apocalyptic writing.

"No. 5 is by all means the most remarkable of these *logia*. Despite its imperfect shape, it is easy to see in its first sentence an echo of Matt. xviii. 20. But the second half, noble as it is in suggesting the possibility of having Christ's presence even when engaged in work (unless it is to be interpreted as meaning that Christ is in all things,

or that effort must precede attainment, or indeed, finally, as mystical), cannot escape the same suspicion as that aroused by No. 3, viz., of a reworking by some of the many teachers of early Christianity—possibly of one of the Gnostic sects.

"Taken altogether, therefore, it is not easy to see that these few *logia* add anything to our knowledge of the teachings of Jesus. If they were written, as their editors seem justified in claiming, somewhere between 150 and 300 A.D. and were in any way representative of a widely accepted Gospel, it is certainly remarkable that they have not in some way left more distinct traces of themselves or of their kind in ecclesiastical literature. The utmost that one dares at present to say of their value is (1) that they certainly throw light upon the nature of collections of *logia*, such as that of Papias; and (2) that it is possible that they represent a collection of genuine and apocryphal sayings of Christ made by some early Christians with Jewish-Gnostic tendencies, with which Egypt teemed. It would be more satisfactory if one could add that they throw a direct light upon the synoptic problem, but such is not the case. So far from appearing like bits of an original Gospel lying back of Matthew and Luke, they much more clearly hint at conflation or at other reworking. Whether this reworking was wholly intentional may be uncertain, but that we have here any light upon an original Hebrew Matthew, a 'gospel to the Hebrews,' or a 'gospel according to the Egyptians,' seems absolutely without likelihood."

It will be noted that the first of these sayings is identical with Luke vi. 42, while No. 6 suggests Luke iv. 23, 24, and in No. 7 there is a parallelism with Matt. v. 14.

Another Interpretation.

In the *Contemporary Review* for August Dr. M. R. James propounds the theory that the fragment discovered by Messrs. Grenfell and Hunt is from a book of Christ's sayings, extracted from one or more gospels. This hypothesis, he says, would serve well to explain the presence in the sayings of elements of various degrees of authenticity; for it seems probable that the early gospels rejected by the Church contained an admixture of genuine matter "along with some that was corrupt and some that was pure invention."

For the fifth and most remarkable of the sayings, which contains the puzzling sentence, "Raise the stone and there thou shalt find me, cleave the wood and there am I," Dr. James suggests three possible lines of interpretation:

"1. Christ is everywhere and in everything. This, as Messrs. Grenfell and Hunt have said, is favored by the near neighborhood of what seems to be a form of the utterance, 'Where two or three are gathered together, there am I in the midst of them,' and the sentence from the *Gospel of Eve*, which Epiphanius has preserved, supplies an attractive illustration.

"2. The emphasis is to be laid upon the hard and laborious character of the acts prescribed—the heaving up of the stone and the cleaving of the wood. We should then have a parallel to the precept, 'Ask, and ye shall receive; seek, and ye shall find; knock, and it shall be opened unto you;' an utterance in which the command seems to me quite as important an element as the promise. Effort is necessary if the knowledge of Christ is to be won.

"3. The 'stone' and the 'wood' may just possibly be the important factors in the saying. Both of them are familiar types of the Lord. But I cannot give a satisfactory meaning to the whole clause on this hypothesis, though it seems just worth mentioning.

IS THIS PANTHEISM?

"The first interpretation has a flavor of Pantheism about it, of something far removed from the ordinary lines of our Lord's genuine sayings. If the interpretation be correct, the words would better suit a 'Gnostic' milieu than an orthodox one. But I doubt its correctness. Would any sect which is likely to have produced this mystical saying have put it in such a form? Were they not all too deeply imbued with a belief in the inherent evil of matter? Stone and wood, the productions of an ignorant or evil Creator, with whose works it is the object of every enlightened soul to have as little to do as possible, could they be spoken of in so emphatic a manner as this? I do not think that a Gnostic would thus conceive of the presence of Christ in created things. The Lord 'is everywhere and heareth every one of us,' say the Docetic *Acts of John*, it is true; but there is no hint to show that he is present in inanimate things of sense.

"I incline rather to the second of the interpretations suggested above. It is direct and simple, and it is in accordance with Christ's known teaching. Possibly the collector of the *logia* may have understood the sentence differently, and therefore placed it in the position in which we find it. If he did, he acted, I believe, under a misapprehension."

Dr. James leaves his theories to the tender mercies of the critics, expressing to Messrs. Grenfell and Hunt his warmest thanks for the way in which they have dealt with this splendid find.

WHEN WERE THE GOSPELS WRITTEN?

MR. F. J. KENYON'S article in the September *McClure's* under this title is chiefly valuable in its notes on the "Diatessaron" of Tatian, a harmonized gospel, composed out of the four gospels by dovetailing verses out of the different evangelists into a single narrative. The work shows the preëminent position of the four gospels at a very early date, for Tatian was born about 110 A.D. This harmony passed current in the Syrian Church for many generations as an orthodox representation of the gospel narrative. On the other hand, Mr. Rendel Harris has shown reason to believe that it exhibited traces of the special opinions of the Encratites.

"In the one case we should suppose it to have been written about 160; in the other about 170. If, then, the 'Diatessaron' was put together out of the four canonical gospels, it is clear that they held, at this date, a position of marked and recognized superiority over all other narratives of our Lord's life; and since such a position could not be acquired except after the lapse of some considerable time, this would show that all four were composed at a date at least as early as that which Baur assigns to the earliest of them and much earlier than those which he allows to three out of the four."

Baur dated St. Matthew's gospel A.D. 130, St. Luke's, St. Mark's, and St. John's about 150, 160, and 165 respectively. This "Diatessaron" was supposed to be lost, the earliest mention of it being by Eusebius about A.D. 325. It was in America that the discovery was first made by Dr. Ezra Abbott in 1880 that Tatian's "Diatessaron" was actually constructed out of the four canonical gospels. The commentary on the "Diatessaron" by St. Ephrem, with its copious quotations, enabled the scholars to make out the general structure and much of the actual text of the work. Father Ciasca, one of the librarians of the Vatican, was the first modern scholar to see the complete "Diatessaron." Its publication was delayed till 1886. Ciasca chanced to show the manuscript to the vicar-apostolic of the Catholic Copts, then on a visit to Rome, and this gentleman at once remarked that he had seen another copy in private hands in Egypt, and could undertake to procure it. He was true to his word, and from this new manuscript, which is superior to the copy in the Vatican, Ciasca edited the work in 1888. Though the reappearance of this work does not enable the scholars to fix absolutely the date of the composition of the gospels, yet it places the date far back of the theories that had been held. Mr. Kenyon says it is enough for us to know that they belong, even the latest of them, to the age of the apostles, and that there is no

reason, so far as external evidence is concerned, to doubt the traditional belief that they were written either by the apostles themselves or by their companions.

ARE THE RICH GROWING RICHER AND THE POOR POORER?

IN the September *Atlantic Monthly* the Hon. Carroll D. Wright musters a considerable array of figures to show that this inquiry cannot be answered in the affirmative. For while his figures prove that the rich are growing richer, they also prove that the poor are not growing poorer. He says this with the full knowledge that the truth of the phrase has become thoroughly accepted. He admits that there are more large fortunes at the present time than in any other period in our history, and that there are more people having independent fortunes than at any other time. He is willing to admit that seven-eighths of the families hold but one-eighth of the wealth, while 1 per cent. of the families hold more than the remaining 99 per cent.; or, stated otherwise, that 1,500,000 families own \$56,000,000,000, while the other 11,000,000 families own \$9,000,000,000 of the nation's wealth; or that 12 per cent. of the families own 86 per cent. of the wealth, and the other 88 per cent. of the families own only 14 per cent.

As against this he reminds us that, beginning with 1850, the per capita of wealth of the country has grown as follows: In 1850, \$308 per capita; in 1860, \$514; in 1870, \$780; in 1880, \$870; and in 1890, \$1,036 per capita. While these figures are not so accurate in the first years as in the later periods, he considers them quite accurate enough to show that there is a wide margin in the increased aggregate wealth within which the rich can grow richer without necessitating that the poor should grow poorer.

THE HIGHER STANDARD OF BREAD-WINNING.

In more specific support of his thesis, Mr. Wright analyzes the whole body of bread-winners of the country—a body which in 1870 amounted to 32.43 per cent. of the total population, in 1880 to 34.67 per cent., and in 1890 to 36.31 per cent. He classifies all this bread-winning population into four groups, and finds that the highest group, consisting of farmers and planters who are proprietors, bankers, brokers, manufacturers, merchants, and dealers, and who engage in professional pursuits, constitute 10.17 per cent. of the whole population in 1870, 11.22 per cent. in 1880, and 11.97 per cent. in 1890, showing a steady gain in the proportion of this high class of bread-winners to the whole population.

"Making another group, composed of agents, collectors, commercial travelers, bookkeepers, clerks, salesmen, and others in kindred occupations, we find that in 1870 they constituted 0.91 per cent. of the whole population, that in 1880 the percentage rose to 1.25, and that in 1890 it reached 2.15, showing that in this class of persons there was also a constant increase in relative proportion.

"Making still another group, including the skilled workers of the community, such as clothing makers, engineers and firemen, food preparers, leather workers, those engaged in the mechanical trades, metal workers, printers, engravers and bookbinders, steam railroad employees, textile workers, tobacco and cigar factory operatives, wood workers, and those in similar mechanical pursuits, we find that of the whole population they constituted 6.59 per cent. in 1870, 7.18 per cent. in 1880, and 8.75 per cent. in 1890, showing again in the skilled trades a constantly increasing relative proportion.

"Making, now, a fourth group, including agricultural laborers, boatmen, fishermen, sailors, draymen, hostlers, ordinary laborers, miners and quarrymen, messengers, packers, porters, servants, and all other pursuits of like grade, we find the reverse to be true. That is, although in 1870 this class of workers constituted 14.76 per cent. of the total population, in 1890 it reached but 13.44 per cent."

These figures show to Mr. Wright's mind that there is a steady uplifting of the standards; in other words, that relatively there are fewer people engaged in unskilled and worse-paid occupations of life.

BETTER WAGES AND LOWER PRICES.

Then, as to wages, Mr. Wright draws on the report by Senator Aldrich giving the course of wholesale prices and wages from 1840 to 1891. It deals with seventeen great branches of industry, the principal ones in the country, and from it we find that, taking 1830 as a standard at 100, rates of wages rose from 87.7 in 1840 to 160.7 in 1891; that is, an increase of 60.7 per cent. from 1860 and of 73 per cent. from 1840. In other words, there was an average gain during the 51 years of 86 per cent. And this was in the face of the fact that hours of labor had been reduced during that period, an average of 1.4 hours per day.

Of course, an increase of wages means nothing without an inquiry into the prices for the things for which wages are spent. Examining into the prices of 223 articles, it was found that their prices were 7.8 per cent. lower in 1891 than in 1860, and Senator Aldrich's report makes the

cost of living, aside from rent, decrease between 4 and 5 per cent. between 1860 and 1891. So that, taking rent and everything into consideration, Mr. Wright concludes that living was not much, if any, higher in 1891 than in 1860. Many more incidental data are quoted by Mr. Wright to show that the poor people of the country are in a better case than they were fifty years ago and are constantly improving their standard of living. For instance, the statistics show that in 1850 the paupers in the almshouses were 2,171 to each million, while in 1890 they were 1,176 to each million.

Are the rich, then, growing richer, and the poor poorer? If this be true, says Colonel Wright, our whole civilization is a cheat.

"The statement, I reiterate, is not true, as a whole, but it is true that the rich are growing richer and the poor are growing better off; and with increased understanding of the true uses of wealth, the proportion in which the rich are growing richer and the poor better off will assume more just and equitable relations."

RUSKIN AMONG WORKINGMEN.

UNDER the heading "A Memorable Art Class," Mr. Thomas Sulman contributes to *Good Words* for August, fascinating memories of the art class at the Workingmen's College in the early fifties. John Ruskin threw himself heartily into this art work in 1854. Looking back the writer says:

"I cannot hope to describe the delights of those evenings. Twice a week John Ruskin positively beamed; he devoted himself to those who gave themselves sincerely to study. He taught each of us separately, studying the capacities of each student.

HIS WAY OF TEACHING.

"We drew first a plaster of Paris ball, giving the intersecting shadows of a score of gaslights; then a small plaster cast of a natural leaf. After that he went to nature; a spray of dried laurel leaves, a feather, a bit of spar to show the lines of cleavage; every kind of natural structure. He soon encouraged us to try color, warning us that gaslight altered all the values, but saying that color, was too delightful to be foregone. For one pupil he would put a cairngorm pebble or fluor-spar into a tumbler of water, and set him to trace their tangled veins of crimson and amethyst. For another he would bring lichen and fungi from Anerley Woods. Once, to fill us with despair of color, he brought a case of West Indian birds unstuffed, as the collector had stored them, all rubies and emeralds. Sometimes it was a fif-

teenth-century Gothic missal when he set us counting the order of the colored leaves in each spray of the MS. At other times it was a splendid Albert Dürer wood-cut that we might copy a square inch or two of herbage and identify the columbines and cyclamens. He talked much to the class, discursively but radiantly. I think I remember that in politics and religion he leaned to order rather than progress. . . . I have a delightful memory of an architectural evening, principally given to French Gothic, comparing Amiens, Rouen, and Beauvais. He reprinted for us a chapter from the 'Seven Lamps,' with all the illustrations—'Notes on Northern Gothic.' On another night he introduced to us Alfred Rethel's work, especially the weird '*Auch ein Todtentanz*.'

"He was hard to please, I remember, in engraving. Etching he thought frivolous.

HIS MASTERS.

"He told us if we got to like large, cross-hatched, finished prints after Correggio or Raphael we were lost, unless we forthwith sold or, better still, burned them. . . . But Albert Dürer was his favorite master. We copied bits of the great and smaller passions, the 'St. Hubert' and the 'St. Jerome.' But of course the pole-star of his artistic heavens was Turner. One by one, he brought for us to examine his marvels of water-color art from Denmark Hill. He would point out the subtleties and felicities in their composition, analyzing on a blackboard their line schemes. Sometimes he would make us copy minute portions of a 'Liber,' some line of footsteps, or the handles of a plow. He would not allow us to copy Turner in colors, saying that would come years after, at present nothing of these but line."

"HIS GREATEST FAULT AS A TEACHER!"

"On formal occasions he did not speak well. His style was over-elaborate and paradoxical, but on these evenings he talked divinely; we were carried away by the current of his enthusiasm. Often his subject was poetry, and then he was never tired of praising Scott. . . .

"Although I have reason to think he was at this time privately suffering, he seemed delighted with his class. His face would light up when he saw a piece of honest or delicate work; it was, perhaps, his greatest fault as a teacher that he was sometimes too lavish of his praise."

Possibly to those who are only readers of the great art-critic this last seems the most astounding fact in the whole paper, full as it is of intense interest.

RECENT SOCIALISTIC EXPERIMENTS.

In England and Elsewhere.

THE other day it was announced that Count Tolstoi's friends are preparing to found a Socialistic or Communistic experimental settlement in Alderney, while others are engaged in making efforts in this direction in Essex. A recent number of the *Economic Review* mentions some colonization schemes which have been established in Great Britain, but which, however, unfortunately do not seem to be able to pay their way:

"1. The Free Communist and Coöperative Colony at Clousden Hill Farm, Forest Hill, Newcastle. Among the many highly desirable ideals which this association sets before itself, the most characteristic is 'to demonstrate the superiority of free communist association as against the competitive production of to-day.' Principle No. 8 states that 'this association being constituted on the principles of liberty and equality, we do not recognize any other authority but the one of reason, and no member or members shall have any other power than that of reasoning.' Or, again, No. 13: 'Except in cases of general agreement, no working time shall be fixed or limited, as we believe that, considering these new conditions, each one will do his best and work according to his abilities, physically or otherwise.'"

Alas! this excellent society seems to suffer from the prevailing malady of all such idealistic projects. According to the last available balance-sheet, the receipts of the farm amounted to £81 for the half-year, while the outgoings amounted to £228. On this showing competitive production has not much to fear from the rivalry of free communistic institutions.

The second scheme described by the *Economic Review* is the Westmoreland Home Colonization Experiment. Object: to provide work in English industrial villages for the able-bodied unemployed poor. There are two farms in connection with this scheme, on the first of which, that of Browhead, the last available balance-sheet shows a deficit of £93, excluding subscriptions; on the second the accounts nearly balance, but only with the aid of £359 in donations.

The third case mentioned by the *Economic Review* is that of the Landholders' Court, Winter-slow, which seems to be financially very profitable:

"Corn-milling and carpentry are the winter occupations; and market-gardening and the making of peat moss litter are carried on in the summer. It is a sort of system of small holdings. 'It is really,' says Major Poore, 'the restoration of the procedure of a manor.' The only novelty

about it, however, unless the allotment of five-shilling shares to the tenants is to be called such, is the establishment of a court, consisting of the directors, who try all cases in dispute. It is now the end of the fourth year of this experiment. At the outset Major Poore advanced £1,768 8s. 7d. for purchase of farms, etc. Since then, £50 has been advanced to members on mortgage, and yet, by July 31, 1894, £1,832 17s. 8d. had been repaid, and there was a balance of £64 9s. 1d. This has swelled in the succeeding year to £237 3s. 5d. On February 5, 1897, Major Poore writes, 'I have as yet no arrears, nor has any tenant fallen out of line.'"

CLEANING THE STREETS OF NEW YORK.

THE September *McClure's* opens with an account by Colonel Waring of his Augean labors as commissioner of the New York Street Cleaning Department; incidentally, it is remarkable how the art department of *McClure's* has managed to invest the prosaic details of removing *débris* from the streets with such interest as the many capital pictures have. New Yorkers do not need Colonel Waring's description of the frightful condition of the streets at the time that he took hold of the department. So frightful was this condition that the death-rate for 12 years had amounted to 25.78 per cent. per 1,000 persons, equivalent to 50,000 deaths a year on the basis of present population; eye and throat diseases, due to dust, and especially to putrid dust, were rife; snow was not removed, and only some 27 miles of streets were cleared after a storm. The street-cleaners were robbed by politicians and scorned by the public. Mr. Waring took the commissionership with Mayor Strong's assurance that the new incumbent should be absolutely autonomous in the matter of appointments and dismissals and should have his own way generally.

In a matter of three years the commissioner has turned the street-cleaning band from a most disreputable body of tramps, rounders, fourth-rate workmen, and incompetents with a pull into what he proudly and truly calls a splendid body of men, actuated by a real *esprit de corps*. The horses of the department are the finest in the city for their work, well groomed and treated. The carts are new and sound, and show what an amount of attention has been bestowed on small details. The colonel tells that for every cart there is a complete duplicate set of harness, bought a year or more in advance in order that it might become thoroughly seasoned before being put to hard use, and he says the gain in durability is far more than the loss in interest. Six-

teen years ago it cost the city \$11,000 a year for the "trimming" of the scows that carried away the refuse; now the city receives for the scow-trimming privilege about \$50,000 worth of labor free and more than \$90,000 in cash. Nearly 1,000 miles of streets are swept every day, while in 1888, under one of the best commissioners, 50 miles were swept daily, 187 miles three times a week, 65 miles twice a week, and 24 miles "when found necessary." At present 35½ miles are swept four and five times a day, 50½ miles three times a day, 283½ miles twice a day, and 63½ miles once a day, making a total of 433 miles. After a snow-storm 145 miles of snow is hauled off. Colonel Waring can make the astonishing statement that in five consecutive weeks of 1895 more snow was removed, and for less money, than for the five years beginning with 1889. He says that the president of the United States Rubber Company informed him that this snow removal, together with the abolition of mud from the streets at all seasons, has cost that company \$100,000 per year by reason of the decreased demand for rubber boots and shoes.

The commissioner suggests some of the benefits of clean streets in the following paragraph:

"Few realize the many minor ways in which the work of the department has benefited the people at large. For example: There is far less injury from dust to clothing, to furniture, and to goods in shops; mud is not tracked from the streets on to the sidewalks and thence into the houses; boots require far less cleaning; the wearing of overshoes has been largely abandoned; wet feet and bedraggled skirts are mainly a thing of the past, and children now make free use as a playground of streets which were formerly impossible to them. 'Scratches,' a skin disease of horses due to mud and slush, used to entail very serious cost on truckmen and liverymen. It is now almost unknown. Horses used to 'pick up a nail' with alarming frequency, and this caused great loss of service and, like scratches, made the bill of the veterinary surgeon a serious matter. There are practically no nails now to be found in the streets.

"The great, the almost inestimable, beneficial effect of the work of the department is shown in the great reduction of the death-rate and in the less keenly realized but still more important reduction in the sick-rate. As compared with the average death-rate of 26.78 of 1882-94, that of 1895 was 23.10, that of 1896 was 21.52, and that of the first half of 1897 was 19.63. If this latter figure is maintained throughout the year there will have been 15,000 fewer deaths than there would have been had the average rate of the thirteen previous years prevailed. The

report of the Board of Health for 1896, basing its calculations on diarrheal diseases in July, August, and September, in the filthiest wards, in the most crowded wards, and in the remainder of the city, shows a very marked reduction in all and the largest reduction in the first two classes."

MR. ROOSEVELT AND THE NEW YORK POLICE.

IN the September *Atlantic Monthly* Mr. Roosevelt tells in his characteristically plain, straightforward style the story of his administration of the New York police force. He tells how of all the corruptions of New York City the police force was the center; how there was a perfectly recognized tariff of charges, ranging from \$200 or \$300 for appointment as a patrolman to \$12,000 or \$15,000 for promotion to the position of captain, and how that money was distributed by an elaborate system of blackmail. The source of the funds, of course, was the gambling, liquor-selling, and disorderly house elements, which contributed, each according to its means, to the rotten system. Mr. Roosevelt was appointed in May, 1895. He had many more influences to overcome than the opposition of the avowed Tammanyites, but the machine itself was sufficiently powerful and sufficiently bitter in its opposition to the reform work to daunt the average man, and he says: "If by any reasonable concessions, if indeed by the performance of any act not incompatible with our oaths of office, we could have stood on good terms with the machine, we would assuredly have made the effort, even at the cost of sacrificing many of our ideals." But it was not possible; war was declared, and Mr. Roosevelt won on his merits.

He says that aside from the direct opposition of Tammany, his most determined foes were the allies that Tammany found in the sensational newspapers. "Of all the forces that tend for evil in a great city like New York, probably no other is so potent as the sensational press." Mr. Roosevelt disclaims the exercise of any particular brilliancy in the work which he accomplished. He says that nothing was required except the plain, ordinary virtues of a rather commonplace type, which all good citizens should be expected to possess, and he explains how his methods for restoring order, and discipline, and honesty were entirely simple, as were also the methods for securing efficiency. The hardest problem was to break up the system of blackmail and the enforcement of the liquor law, which caused the most excitement. He states plainly, and in italics, that "an agreement was made between the leaders of Tammany Hall and the liquor dealers, according to which the monthly blackmail paid to the

police by the liquor dealers who wished to carry on an illicit trade should be discontinued in return for political support." The law against Sunday liquor-selling was not a dead letter, but was simply used for blackmail and political purposes. Mr. Roosevelt says there are two courses open to the Police Board. "We could either instruct the police to allow all the saloon keepers to become lawbreakers, or else we could instruct them to allow none to be lawbreakers." Every one remembers how the latter course was followed, and what a fight there was for months. The professional politicians of low type, the liquor sellers, the editors of some German newspapers and the sensational press attacked the reform administration with the most intense ferocity. Intensely ferocious attacks are, however, what Mr. Roosevelt rejoices in when he has the right side, and he succeeded in enforcing the excise law to a degree which was notable under the circumstances. He thinks the wives and children of the poor people benefited very greatly by the enforcement. "The hospitals found that their Monday labors were lessened nearly one-half owing to the startling diminution in cases of injury due to drunken brawls."

The honest conduct of the elections was another important task, and Mr. Roosevelt's stringent course of examination improved vastly the standard of election methods.

At the same time that these specific reforms were going on the Police Board was making most earnest efforts to improve the moral, mental, and physical standards of the policemen. They were much hampered by the law, which prevented them from dismissing many of the men who should have been removed, but more than 200 unfit policemen were turned away and 1,700 men were appointed—more than four times as many as ever before. The most rigid competitive examinations led to appointments, and a part of them was a very severe physical examination. Lastly, there was a rigid investigation of character, and Mr. Roosevelt thinks the result of these efforts, as shown in the body of recruits for patrolmen which he mustered, is a thorough answer to theorists who sneer at civil-service reform as impracticable. He says the uplifting of the force was very noticeable, both physically and mentally. "The best men we got were those who had served for three years or so in the army or navy. Next to these came the railroad men. Not once in a hundred times did we know the politics of the appointee, and we paid as little heed to this as to his religion."

Mr. Roosevelt points out a very clear-cut lesson to be learned from his experience in the Police Department. "Very many men put their

faith in some special device, some special bit of legislation, or some official scheme for getting good government. In reality good government can only come through good administration, and good administration only as a consequence of a sustained—not spasmodic—and earnest effort by good citizens to secure honesty, courage, and common sense among civic administrators. If they demand the impossible they will fail; and, on the other hand, if they do not demand a good deal they will get nothing."

PRESIDENT ANDREWS ON COLLEGE EDUCATION.

AS this is being written, the official announcement has just come of President Andrews' acceptance of the presidency of the new Cosmopolitan University which is to be founded by Mr. John Brispen Walker, editor and proprietor of the *Cosmopolitan Magazine*. It is therefore particularly interesting to find in the September issue of the *Cosmopolitan* an essay by President Andrews in the series on "Modern College Education." On the eve of the courageous effort that Mr. Andrews and Mr. Walker will make to bring the real advantages of a college training within the reach of every American citizen, this essay of the first president of the Cosmopolitan University has a particular significance as presenting the ideals of the brilliant, well-trained, and conscientious scholar who is to undertake the leadership of this novel educational institution. President Andrews writes in the *Cosmopolitan* under the title, "The New Educational Ideals." He says that notwithstanding the four hundred million dollars now expended annually in the United States for educational purposes and the hundreds of colleges with their elaborate appointments, still it is by no means true that every one can get a college education who wishes it. In fact, he says that there is an immense population of young men and women totally destitute of opportunities for liberal literary culture. To supply the needs of teachers, physicians, journalists, lawyers, clergymen, and others who cannot from force of circumstances go to college, the university extension and Chautauqua movements have come; but their effect is to a great extent local, and Dr. Andrews reminds us, too, that the Chautauqua circles are "under particular religious auspices, which may alienate vast numbers whom it is desirable to attract." In the face of this condition, where so many people who might make splendid use of college training are absolutely cut off from it, Dr. Andrews asks: "What benediction might not be conferred upon future generations of American citizens by the enlarged opportunities could they, from this time

on, be offered to every man and woman in the republic willing to use them? With the offer, when made, should go a general detailed and persistent effort to awaken attention to it and to secure its acceptance far and wide. The schooling should be provided, and understood to be provided, in the interest of no sect, section, or party, but to 'widen the skirts of light' and render the kingdom of darkness narrower.

"That such a system of popular education, carried on at arm's length, so to speak, would be attended with considerable imperfections, both theoretical and practical, is manifest. Doubtless the best teaching can be done only when master and pupil are face to face; also, the best teaching in the sciences requires laboratory facilities. But these difficulties will not, in thoughtful minds, essentially detract from the dignity or the value of the enterprise. Courses of reading in the various ranges of art, science, philosophy, and literature can be carefully prescribed and conscientiously supervised; examinations thereon can be conducted; the merits and defects of work pointed out; promotions instituted and, ultimately, degrees offered. Much scientific experimentation is already possible at home, and a great deal more than is now in use can be devised and introduced. To students in botany, zoölogy, and geology, the infinite book lies open everywhere. Meantime every science has its history, and also its descriptive portion, which are set forth in accessible treatises. These can be systematically studied and examinations held upon their contents."

THE QUESTION OF THE CLASSICS.

Dr. Andrews goes on to argue enthusiastically for the teaching of "the literature of power" against "the literature of knowledge," to use the Wordsworthian classification. He wants more enthusiasm, more facility in thinking, in his teaching and his learning. He complains that there is in our teaching little to appeal to the sense of conduct and to the sense of duty in pupils. "There is not enough of drill in the classroom, especially in the upper classes; not enough of close, resolute grapple between the teacher's and the learner's mind; not enough of the Socratic method of give and take. The crib is laid with food, but little effort is had to impart to the eater voracity or assimilating power. He may eat or he may starve, as he pleases." These complaints have been made before by others than Dr. Andrews, and of course the chief value of mentioning them is to determine their cause and their remedy. Dr. Andrews in an outspoken way connects them with the classical studies which in a number of our colleges form the important

part of the curriculum. He says he began teaching as an enthusiastic classicist, but confesses: "Long experience and observation in college have persuaded me of certain grave intellectual and moral vices connected with classical training." He does not disapprove of the fullest classical teaching in the university proper, that is, after the college, but for the college man he begrudges deeply the time spent upon classical prosody, and he quarrels particularly with the study of mythology. He thinks that the delving into mythological lore which the classics have for the college student is worse than useless, since it hampers one in thinking reality. Of Ovid's "Metamorphoses" President Andrews says patly: "We suffer net loss by every moment devoted to such reading." He believes that there is no truth in the idea that we can be made to understand modern things through ancient things. The ancient world was different from ours, and will not help.

President Andrews goes farther than most of the opponents of classicism, and denies that a study of the Greek and Latin authors is any aid in acquiring a good style. He says: "The study of the classics is a positive obstacle in the way of acquiring an easy, idiomatic, and forcible English style. The awkward structure of sentences in both the classic tongues sufficiently explains this. To be reminded that Milton was a consummate Latinist, you have only to read his prose works." Of the moral aspects of classical training, President Andrews says that the Greek and Latin literature offers a great stimulus to noble sentiments. He also points out another side of the picture, and thinks the advantage of this stimulus is largely offset by those extensive portions of classical literature which "reek with filth."

A PROGRAMME OF REFORMS.

So much for President Andrews' plain-spoken condemnation of the classical ideal as existing in the colleges training our American boys for business and active life. He does not rest with his destructive criticism, but goes on immediately to suggest the changes which should be made in our college methods to overcome the failures and evils of the old-fashioned education.

"To work out in detail such a reform curriculum would be too technical a business for this place. The main innovations in it would be as follows:

"I. Unprecedented emphasis upon thoroughness, logic, and system in all the studies pursued. Very much greater attention than now should be given to students' compositions, not so much to better them rhetorically, in the usual sense, but

to render them more satisfactory logically in the elements of unity, continuity, and progress of thought. To this end it would be necessary for a competent master to sit down with each pupil over each composition presented and point out its errors one by one with care. After this the work should be rewritten by its author and criticised again. Every instructor, without distinction of departments, should be charged not only to make his own work a model in logical particulars, but to insist on the same in all written work submitted to him. This practice was followed by Edward Caird with his philosophy classes while he was professor in Glasgow University, and it largely accounts for the number of brilliant thinkers who then issued from his charge.

"II. Unprecedented emphasis upon moral character and conduct. There should be a continuous training in ethical matters, not confined to a single miserable term, which is only better than nothing, but running through the entire course. Ethical teaching should be more scientific, based at every point on theory and carefully and pungently applied to all the capital moral problems of life. Pupils should be introduced to the most inspiring ethical literature, the best dialogues of Plato and the meditations of Marc Aurelius, with many a fine essay from Seneca, Cicero, Epictetus, Philo Judæus, Kant, and Fichte. The simple reading of these noble books under an enthusiastic master would effect wonders.

"III. Biology in the largest sense in place of Latin and Greek. Biology is an immense subject, including botany, zoölogy, and the entire range of social science, viz., political economy, political history, and the science of society and of government. No studies are more disciplinary than these and none can be more useful.

THE VALUE OF BIOLOGY.

"Few are aware how humanity suffers for lack of fuller biological knowledge. Bacteriology is perhaps just now the most important study in which the mind of man can engage. Armies of human beings die yearly and other armies ceaselessly suffer indescribable pain in consequence of this ignorance. Competent experimenters find but few pupils ready or able to experiment fruitfully in this field. The whole structure and spirit of liberal education avails to turn pupils' minds in other directions. The college course outlined above being generally adopted would entirely change this. As many brilliant college graduates would then be ready for advanced experimentation, calculated to save life and health and promote happiness, as now go forth to become proficient classical teachers."

BOOKER T. WASHINGTON ON THE NEGRO'S WEAKNESS AND STRENGTH.

MR. BOOKER T. WASHINGTON contributes to the *Church Union* for August a candid and discriminating study of "The Weakness and Strength of the Negro Race."

As Mr. Washington says at the outset, it is a good thing for a race, as well as for an individual, to be able to study itself. Faults should neither be overlooked nor exclusively dwelt upon; virtues should not be magnified. "What is needed is downright, straightforward honesty in both directions."

Mr. Washington admits that the negro has suffered physical deterioration, especially in the large cities North and South. This is due partly to ignorant violation of the laws of health and partly to vicious habits.

"The negro who, during slavery, lived on the large plantations in the South, surrounded by restraints, at the close of the war came to the city and in many cases found the freedom and temptations of the city too much for him. The transition was too great for him in many cases. When we consider what it meant to have four millions of people slaves to-day and freemen to-morrow, the wonder is that the race has not suffered physically more than it has. I do not believe that statistics can be so marshaled as to prove that the negro as a race is on the decline in numbers; on the other hand, the negro is increasing in numbers by a larger percentage than is true of the French nation. While the death-rate is large in the cities, the birth-rate is also large, and it is to be borne in mind that 85 per cent. of our people in the Gulf States are in the country districts and smaller towns, and there the increase is along healthy and normal lines. Then, too, it is to be borne in mind that just in proportion as the negro is being educated, just in the same proportion is the high death-rate in the cities disappearing. For proof of this, I have only to mention that a few years ago no colored man could get insured in the large, first-class insurance companies; now there are few of these companies that do not seek the insurance of educated colored men. Then, all along the line North and South, the physical intoxication that was the result of sudden freedom is giving way to an encouraging, sobering process—and as this continues the high death-rate will disappear even in the large cities."

Another element of weakness in the race is the lack of ability to adhere inflexibly to a definite purpose. There are, of course, exceptions to this rule, and Mr. Washington's own work at Tuskegee is surely a brilliant instance of persist-

ence in pursuit of a worthy object under circumstances of a most discouraging nature; but the negro does not usually succeed in such enterprises. Mr. Washington thinks that he is weak as an organizer.

MORALITY AND RELIGION.

"But the weakness of the negro which is most frequently held up to public gaze is that of morals, and no one who wants to be honest and at the same time benefit the race will deny that here is where the strengthening is to be done. In discussing this point, it must be borne in mind that the family is the foundation—is the bulwark of any race. Since this is true, it must be kept in mind that it was the constant tendency of slavery to destroy the family life. All through three hundred years of slavery one of the objects was to increase the number of slaves, and to this end almost all thought of morality was lost sight of, so that the negro has had only about thirty years in which to settle down into a family life, while the Anglo-Saxon race, with whom he is constantly being compared, has had thousands of years of training in this. The negro felt all through the years of bondage that his labor was being stolen from him, hence he felt that anything that he could get from the white man in return for this labor justly belonged to him. Since this was true, we must be patient in trying to teach him a different code of morality."

It is found that under the influence of education the negro's religion is becoming less emotional and more rational and practical.

ELEMENTS OF STRENGTH.

The negro is a worker and does not often interfere with the work of other people. Most of the buildings on the grounds of the Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute are the result of labor on the part of students while getting an education.

"For a number of years the impression has prevailed, especially in the North, that the negro could not be depended upon for careful and confining work in the shop or factory. This impression prevails largely, because the negro has not been given a chance to show what he could do. In Charleston, S. C., a few months ago, in a cotton factory that had not paid expenses for some time, the entire white help was replaced by colored labor, and now this factory is on a paying basis."

Notwithstanding the moral delinquencies that are charged against the race, Mr. Washington asserts that here, too, the negro has his strong points. It is very seldom that he betrays a trust. He betrayed neither Federal nor Confederate

soldiers who confided in him during the war. His loyalty to-day is unquestioned. He would fight for the country against any foreign foe.

The negro "knows that he is down, and he wants to get up; he knows that he is ignorant, and he wants to get light." This, at least, is encouraging.

Mr. Washington cites instances of growing thrift and capacity for business management among the negroes of the South, not the least of which is the remarkable development of the Tuskegee Institute, where there are now eight hundred and fifty students and eighty officers and instructors, and where not less than one hundred thousand dollars is annually collected and disbursed under negro direction. With the practical education which this institution gives and the wholesome influence which it has throughout the "Black Belt" of the South, there is surely hope for the negro.

AN INDIAN ON THE FUTURE OF HIS RACE.

ONE of the most readable articles in the August *Forum* was contributed by Simon Pokagon, the Pottawatomie Indian chief whose letter on the subject of Indian names appears elsewhere in this number of the *Review*.

After briefly reviewing the history of the relations of the Indian tribes to the white settlers of different nationalities in America, Pokagon says:

"It is useless to deny the charge that at times we have been goaded to vindictive and cruel acts. Some of my own tribe, however, were soldiers in the Northern army during the civil war. Some of them were taken and held prisoners in the rebel prisons; and the cruelty which, according to the tales they tell, was witnessed there was never outdone in border warfare with the scalping-knife and tomahawk. And yet I believe that had the Northern people been placed in the South under like circumstances, their prisoners of war would have been treated with similar cruelty. It was the result of a desperate effort to save an expiring cause. I believe there is no reasonable person well grounded in United States history who will not admit that there were ten times as many who perished miserably in Southern prisons as have been killed by our people since the discovery of America. I recall these facts not to censure, but to show that cruelty and revenge are the offspring of war, not of race, and that nature has placed no impassable gulf between us and civilization."

For the United States Government's present policy of expending money liberally for the education of the Indian in citizenship rather than

for fighting him, Pokagon has only words of commendation. He expresses much gratification in the work of the school at Carlisle, Pa., and the various government schools. He strongly disapproves, however, of the reservation system as now managed.

"While I most heartily indorse the present policy of the Government in dealing with our people, I must admit—to be true to my own convictions—that I am worried over the ration system, under which so many of our people are being fed on the reservations. I greatly fear it may eventually vagabondize many of them beyond redemption. It permits the gathering of lazy, immoral white men of the worst stamp, who spend their time in idleness and in corrupting Indian morality."

Pokagon finds that his people, when associated with these "squaw men," "develop the wolfish greed of civilization." He fails to see the wisdom of permitting the Indian nations to exist as independent powers within the bounds of the republic.

Pokagon also deplors the ravages of alcoholism among the Indians:

"Were it an open enemy outside our lines, we might meet it with success. But, alas! it is a traitor within our camp, cunning as Wa-goosh (the fox). It embraces and kisses but to poison like the snake—without the warning rattle. Before I associated with white men I had supposed that they were not such slaves to that soulless tyrant as the red man. But I have learned that the cruel curse enslaves alike the white man in his palace and the red man in his hut; alike the chieftain and the king; the savage and the sage. I am indeed puzzled to understand how it is that the white race, whose works seem almost divine, should not be able to destroy this great devil-fish, which their own hands have fashioned and launched upon the sea of human life; whose tentacles reach out into the halls of legislation and courts of law, into colleges and churches—doing everywhere its wicked work."

To Pokagon it seems almost a certainty that the Indian race will in time lose its identity by amalgamation with the whites. He does not speak of this as a consummation devoutly to be wished by either race, but as an inevitable result, to be accepted with characteristic Indian stoicism.

"The index-finger of the past and present is pointing to the future, showing most conclusively that by the middle of the next century all Indian reservations and tribal relations will have passed away. Then our people will begin to scatter; and the result will be a general mixing up of the races. Through intermarriage the blood of our people, like the waters that flow into the great

ocean, will be forever lost in the dominant race; and generations yet unborn will read in history of the red men of the forest and inquire, 'Where are they?'"

LIFE ON THE KLONDYKE

THE September *McClure's* publishes a finely illustrated and very racy description of "Life in the Klondyke Gold-Fields," procured by Mr. J. L. Steffens in an interview with Joe Ladue, the pioneer of Alaska and the founder of Dawson City. Mr. Steffens in his airy account says of Ladue: "He was the weariest-looking man I ever saw. I have known bankers and business men, editors and soldiers and literary men, who had the same look out of the eyes that this pioneer of the Northwest country has. They were men who had made money or a name, earned by hard labor that which others envied them. They were tired, too. Their true stories were 'hard-luck' stories. The disappointments that ran before the final triumph limped in had spoiled the taste of it. None of them showed the truth so plainly as the founder of Dawson, the city of the Klondyke." Ladue started for Alaska fifteen years ago, trading with the Indians, prospecting, running a mill, building, and moving on nomadically from one point to another, always with the hope of finding the gold that everybody knew was in Alaska. Mr. Ladue says that people do not carry "guns" on the Yukon as they used to in California days. Following are some of Mr. Ladue's interesting and laconic observations on the social and commercial aspects of Dawson City.

SOCIAL CONDITIONS.

"Most of the time when the men cannot work is spent in gambling. The saloons are kept up in style, with mirrors, decorations, and fine polished, hardwood bars. No cheating is allowed and none is tried. The saloon keepers won't have it in their places. Nobody goes armed, for it is no use. Some of the men are the kind that would take naturally to shooting, but they don't try it on the Yukon. The only case that I know of was when James Cronister shot Washburn, and that didn't amount to anything, because Washburn was a bad man. There was a jury trial, but the verdict was that Cronister was justified.

"The only society or organization for any purpose besides business in there is the Yukon Pioneers. I don't belong to that, so I don't know much about it. It is something like the California Pioneers of '49. They have a gold badge in the shape of a triangle with Y. P. on it and

the date '89. To be a member you must have come into the country before 1889. But the time limit used to be earlier, and it may be later now, for they have shoved it on up several times since I have noticed. The society does some good. When a man gets sick and caves in it raises money to send him out. Now and then it gives a ball, and there are plans on foot to have more pleasure of that sort next winter and after that. But we need a hotel or some other big building before much of that can be done.

WHAT THE COUNTRY NEEDS.

"In fact, we need a great many things besides gold. We have no coin. Gold-dust and nuggets pass current by weight at about fifteen dollars and fifty cents to the ounce. It is pretty rough reckoning, as, for instance, when a man brings in a nugget mixed with quartz. Then we take it altogether, gravel and gold, for pure gold, and make it up on the goods. Carpenters, blacksmiths—all the trades—are wanted, and men who can work at them can make much more than the average miner. They can't make what a lucky miner can, but if they are enterprising they can make a good stake. Wages are fifteen dollars a day, and a man who works for himself can earn much more than that. I have gone into the logging business with a mill at Dawson. The spruce trees are thirty inches through, and after rafting them down from Ogilvie and Forty Mile you get one hundred and thirty dollars a thousand foot for them sawed into boards. Then there is butchering for the man who will drive sheep over in the summer. It has been done, and it is to be done again. But it is useless for me to go on telling all the occupations that would pay high profits. The future of the Northwest country is not so long as that of a country that can look forward to other industries than mining and the business that depends on mining, but it is longer than the lifetime of any of us. The surface has been pricked in a few places, but I do not know that the best has been found, and I am quite sure no one has any idea of the tremendous extent of the placer diggings, to say nothing of the quartz that is sure to follow. Then, all the other metals, silver and copper and iron, have been turned up, while coal is plentiful. I believe thoroughly in the country. All I have doubt about is the character of some of the men who are rushing in to get rich by just picking up the gold.

"Working a claim can go on at all seasons of the year, and part of the process is best in winter, but prospecting is good only in summer, when the water is flowing and the ground loose. That is another reason why it is useless for new hands to go in now."

THE YUKON VALLEY GOLD-FIELDS.

THE story of the North American Transportation and Trading Company—the organization to whose enterprise is largely due the opening of the Yukon Valley and the discovery of the Klondyke gold fields—is told in the *Midland Monthly* for September.

The company was organized in 1892 by Mr. P. B. Weare, a Chicago merchant, and his friend, Capt. John Healy, an Alaska trader.

"These two men of action wasted no time getting ready to act. They started at once for Seattle, where they chartered a schooner-rigged steamer, loaded it with supplies and with all the material for the building of a river steamer on the Yukon. They sailed on July 12, 1892. Encountering storms on the way, they did not reach St. Michael's Island, at the mouth of the Yukon, until August 11. Their purpose made known, the influences at St. Michael's proved so hostile that had the pioneers been men of ordinary nerve they would have turned their backs upon destiny, and, instead of being among the principal actors in this new Monte Cristo drama, they would doubtless have lived to see their Canadian rivals sole masters of a most interesting situation. But American enterprise was not so easily daunted. These men went to St. Michael's Island to build a boat for the ascent of the Yukon, eighteen hundred or two thousand miles to the then unknown, or little known, source of this gold supply, there to plant trading posts and watch and wait for the inevitable on-rush of the gold-hunters.

"They established themselves at a favorable point on the island, and gave their camp the characteristic name, Fort Getthere. They were thirty days unloading and hauling their stores and building material, by means of rafts and with the hired help of Eskimos—for a number of their men had been hired away from them. Work on the new boat began in earnest, and after many embarrassments obstacles had in turn been overcome, the boat was finally completed. At midnight on September 17, five years ago, the twilight of an Alaskan autumn day, the little steamer *Portus B. Weare* was launched—the first steamer to penetrate the headwaters of the Yukon and the first to bring down the river the news of the rich find of gold in the Klondyke Valley, with much more than a million dollars on board to corroborate the startling story."

On her first voyage up the Yukon the steamer was stopped by the ice at a distance of eight hundred miles from the mouth of the river. One of the party, however, made the journey on snowshoes to the present site of Dawson City, at the mouth of the Klondyke, on through the Chilcoat

Pass, and down to the coast at Juneau. On this journey he established Fort Cudahy.

"Meantime Captain Healy and his men had pushed on up the Yukon to Fort Cudahy and stocked it with provisions and supplies; and a few hundred pioneer miners had found their way through the Chilcoot Pass and were taking out gold in paying quantities. Interest in the new gold-fields of the Yukon continued to grow and adventurers reached out in every direction, the Klondyke region included. The captain employed expert prospectors, who found that most of the many streams emptying into the Yukon yielded 'from four to fifty dollars a day to a man.' With the opening of Birch Creek Circle City was founded. This is now one of the company's stations, on American soil. Many of the Birch Creek claims are now running from one to two hundred dollars a day. The season of 1894 closed with a large increase in the mining population and a large increase in the number and extent of claims successfully worked.

"The spring of 1895 opened auspiciously. The Chilcoot Pass was alive with argonauts eager to test the claims made for the region just opened. The company, now sure of the future, built a second steamer, the *John J. Healy*, to alternate with the *Portus B. Weare* in traversing the Yukon. The close of the season for 1895 showed an output of gold amounting to about a million dollars. This was chiefly from the Birch Creek and Forty Mile placers, nearly all on the American side of the line.

"The year 1896 was one of increasing growth and development for the new gold-fields. The results of the placer-mining were reasonably and in numerous instances surprisingly profitable. That permanent investment in the Yukon gold-fields was at least safe was no longer a question, and many indulged in bright hopes which found full realization.

"But it was not till late in the fall that the rich leads in the Klondyke River region were laid open. Prospectors who applied to the company for grub stakes brought reports of almost fabulous leads on the branches of the Klondyke. Mr. Ely E. Weare, a younger brother of P. B. Weare, now president of the company whose career we have been following, alert to the importance of the finds, at once sent experts to verify the reports. The men sent to spy out the land amply verified the first accounts. The wildest day-dreams of the pioneer investors in Yukon values were soon to be more than realized. But winter had come, and with it came suspension of activities except as the burning process enabled the more enterprising to throw up the dirt for future panning.

"Early in May of the present year the valley of the Klondyke was thronged with eager gold-hunters, and few returned disappointed. Miners who had left claims in the Forty Mile and Birch Creek districts worth from fifty to two hundred dollars a day now found themselves accumulating anywhere from a hundred to two thousand dollars a day.

"Is it any wonder the mining-camps went wild? Is it surprising that the on-looking world is eagerly waiting the inevitable on-rush of 1898 and questioning only as to the extent and richness of the field?"

"GOLDEN RHODESIA."

AN American citizen, Mr. J. Y. F. Blake, contributes to the *National Review* (London) for August what he terms a "revelation" of the hollowness of the claims made for "Golden Rhodesia."

This writer begins by saying that the English people seem to be totally ignorant of the nature of the country. They are ignorant, he says, of the fact that the gold there is all pocket gold, and will not pay for mining; that the land is practically desert, and because of lack of water can never be anything else, and they are ignorant of many other things in their much-vaunted South African Eldorado which this American, in the goodness of his heart, feels moved to enlighten them upon.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RHODESIAN DIGGINGS.

"The gold belt of Rhodesia starts at Tati and runs in a northeasterly direction toward Salisbury and the Hartley Hills. The Sebukwe district, which is situated about half-way between Bulawayo and Fort Charter, in this range, is the richest of all, and here the chief group of mines lies. The gold among the Hartley Hills and north of Salisbury is in very small patches, but often rich. Besides this regular belt there are several detached and isolated districts where gold has been found. Some mining operations have been carried on near Victoria and traces of gold have been discovered at Umtali and in Gazaland. Now the main characteristic of all the gold-bearing reefs found in Rhodesia is this, that they none of them carry gold to any depth. The gold is surface gold, or what is called pocket formation. There are a great many signs all over the country of old diggings having been carried on here, and it is usually in continuation of these old works that shafts are being sunk to-day. All these old works are shallow; none of them, I should say, ever went to a depth of a hundred feet. The usual depth was twenty to thirty feet, while

this seems to show that the gold is everywhere all near the surface, it has been explained by supposing that these old workers did not know how to sink shafts and carry on work at a depth. What the difficulty may have been I do not know, since all they had to do was to go on digging. The ignorance of past ages is always a safe card to play, but I will not readily believe that a people who knew how to use and spend gold did not know how to mine for it. The true explanation of all these shallow workings is in fact the simple and obvious one, carefully as it is being concealed, viz., that the gold never extends to any considerable depth, but 'pinches out,' as it is called, within a hundred feet of the surface. This being so, the country never can amount to much as a gold-producing district. It might pay some individual miners to work the pockets with a pick and shovel, but it will never pay to erect permanent machinery, for the gold-bearing quartz will certainly be finished up long before the cost of the machinery is defrayed. It is not impossible, of course, that a permanent reef may be discovered, but there have been no signs of any so far. I wish myself that the English people would call for a definite report on this particular point by a skilled and independent expert. Two mining engineers of repute have issued reports on the Rhodesian mines and neither of these was published. I may say I know (in fact, it is very generally known out there) that both these reports were of the most unfavorable description. So far as I am aware, the only report officially issued is that of Mr. John Hays Hammond."

Mr. Blake then devotes considerable space to an exposition of the swindling operations conducted under the guise of South African mining companies, but we know something about these things in America, although we have never called them "flotations." He concludes with a disparaging account of the possibilities of agriculture in Rhodesia. This is his prophecy:

"In five years from now Rhodesia will be abandoned by the whites. It may remain under a British protectorate as the connecting link between the colony, the big line of lakes, and the Nile Valley, but it will be abandoned as far as colonizing and settling are concerned. It must be; nothing can galvanize any life into it. For the question is, after all, what has the country got—what is there? and no amount of railroads and prospectuses and booming arrangements can keep a country going for long that has nothing of its own. Whatever the intermediate howling may be, they will have to come down to this in the long run. What can this country produce? Now I know, barring utterly unlooked-for discoveries, I think I may say I know positively,

that it cannot produce gold, and I think I know that it cannot produce any crops to speak of, for, allowing something for irrigation, the water-supply is so limited and the dry season so long that this could only be applied successfully in a very few and very limited areas. With these canceled, there is nothing else to fall back on. I give the country five years to be found out."

DEFECTS IN OUR NAVAL STAFF.

MR. IRA M. HOLLIS contributes to the September *Atlantic Monthly* a frank and decided article under the title "A New Organization for the New Navy," which suggests that the Hon. Theodore Roosevelt may have seen real work cut out for him when he accepted the assistant secretaryship of the navy. It is not strange, Mr. Hollis reminds us, that it should be necessary for him to expose the lack of adequate organization, for our navy has evolved so rapidly that it would be remarkable if new plans for the *personnel* were not required. One of our battleships now could probably have destroyed the whole American navy as it existed at the close of the civil war. Ours is distinctively a "new navy."

Mr. Hollis' particular complaint has to do with the officers of our navy. The administration of the other departments of the personal, the administration, and enlisted men may be improved, too, he thinks, but there is a crying need for a better system of officers. Our ships at present are largely designed on theory. The battle of the Yalu has furnished about the only action since 1865 for any test, and that was, of course, absolutely inadequate. We do not know exactly what our ships will do in battle. The modern ship is a machine, and its casualties can best be foreseen by men with engineering education. They only know of the troubles that may come because of the ship's boilers or valves giving out. Whether a shell is going to jam in the turrets in action, what would happen if communication between the bridge and the engine-rooms be cut off by a shot, or a boiler-tube split, the steering engine broken, or a steam-pipe burst? Indeed, our engineers themselves do not know certainly, for they have never seen a vessel in action. But their uncertainty is knowledge as compared with the total ignorance of these matters of the average officer of the line without any engineering experience.

Mr. Hollis tells us that for thirty years there has been a struggle between the line and the staff of the government, or those officers who may succeed in the command of ships and those who may not. This struggle has developed into

the greatest bitterness between the line and the engineering corps, inasmuch as their duties have clashed at many points. "Neither can be spared, for although other men may be sent out of the ships without decreasing their effectiveness, the men in the compartments containing guns and ammunition and the men in the engine and boiler rooms must stay. They belong to the fighting machine. What is more, they must work in entire harmony toward the same ends if we are to attain the highest qualities in our ships.

"Leaving out the long series of controversies between the line and the engineers, the cause of friction is not far to seek. On every ship there are two sets of officers and men, more or less numerous according to the class of the ship. They are divided, sometimes in almost equal numbers, between the deck, where they man the guns, and the machinery, where they drive engines and boilers. The officers are graduates of the same school; and yet if accident happens to a deck officer an engineer cannot by law take his place, whatever be the emergency; on the other hand, if an engineer is disabled a deck officer would be entirely at a loss what to do in his place. This separation by law and custom forces upon them different interests. The line officer, who alone has the right to command men and ships, will sometimes use his power for the benefit of a class; and the engineer overruled, in many cases connected with his men and machinery, has nevertheless to take the responsibility for the result. The auxiliary machinery which is put into the ships by three or four bureaus is managed by as many officers, and yet the chief engineer is by naval regulations held responsible for all repairs and adjustments, without having had any voice in the training of the men or the care of this machinery to prevent accident. It would seem that the naval regulations tend to invite controversy and bad feeling, and to instill into officers the conviction that their corps interest must be supreme. In the entire separation of the two corps the country is found to be the loser, and no ship will be studied as a unit until they are brought together."

Mr Hollis does not need to argue much farther to show us what a fatal defect this line of cleavage between the engineers and the other officers might be. He shows how Mr. Welles, "the ablest Secretary which the Navy Department has ever had," tried hard to remedy it as long ago as 1865. He thought that the deck officers ought to learn to drive machinery and take care of it. There are two bills now before Congress for the improvement of the *personnel*, one relating to promotions in the line and the other to an in-

crease in the number of engineers, with a better definition of their status and rank. Neither of these bills has any prospect of passing both houses, on account of the line and staff quarrel." Mr. Hollis says boldly that

"The present system at the Naval Academy does not supply the needs of a modern navy, and it too often instills into the youthful minds of the cadets the vicious notion that the commanding officer is above the knowledge of every detail of his own ship. During the course considerable attention is given to mathematics, seamanship, gunnery, and navigation, and a comparatively small amount to engineering, language, and the natural sciences. At the end of three years the cadets are separated into two divisions, one of line cadets and one of engineer cadets. The latter receive one year in engineering and the former an additional year in seamanship, navigation, and gunnery. By seamanship is here meant the handling of a ship under sail. Those who pass the examinations graduate at the end of their fourth year, and serve two years at sea before receiving commissions. These two years are supposed to give the graduates a more practical knowledge of their professions. The line cadets usually find themselves on sailless vessels and proceed to pick up what they can about boats, guns, and the management of men on deck. They are required to spend some time in the engine-rooms when the ship is steaming, but without responsibilities or duties, very much as tourists crossing the Atlantic visit the engine-room. After two years at sea they are ordered home for examination, and receive commissions in the line of the marine corps if vacancies can be found for them. The engineer cadets pass through the same stage, except that their two years at sea are spent with the machinery. They receive commissions as assistant engineers. Two or three 'star' graduates are yearly transferred to the Corps of Naval Constructors and remain on shore for duties at navy-yards and at the Department, in connection with the design and building of the hulls of ships."

At the end of the third year, then, the cadets are divided into line and engineer cadets, according to preference, and the men high in their class very seldom go to the almost despised engineer corps. Naturally, a hard-working, ambitious young officer wants to get where he can be promoted, and the engineer corps does not lead to commanding vessels.

To remedy this evil, which certainly looks as if it might become serious to a calamitous degree if our ships were called into a great naval war, and to remedy others which Mr. Hollis mentions, he suggests the following changes as being prac-

licable and calculated to aid in the present un-homogeneous organization of our navy's *personnel*:

"1. To make the course at the Naval Academy the same for all cadets, with a strong emphasis on engineering.

"2. To give all the graduates, except those entering the marine and construction corps, commissions as ensigns in the line.

"3. To require all line officers to spend their first six years at sea, equally divided between responsible duties on deck and in the machinery department.

"4. To permit any line officer to specialize in engineering during his second six years as a commissioned officer, and at the end of this time to transfer him to the engineer corps after thorough examination in engineering.

"5. To require at least one officer of the engineer corps on every ship, and to place under his charge all that pertains to machinery on board, including the men required for engineering matters.

"6. To give all watch duties connected with repairing and driving machinery to line officers under the direction of the chief engineers.

"7. To promote all officers of the line and engineer corps at the same rate and to the same ranks.

"8. To make the total number of line officers and engineers together what it is now by law, with a minimum of about one hundred officers in the engineer corps.

"9. To regulate the flow of promotion by permitting a limited number of officers to retire after thirty years' service.

"10. To provide a 'reserve list' for officers who do not reach command rank young enough to be effective.

"11. To promote all ensigns after three years' service in that grade.

"12. To transfer to the line all officers of the present engineer corps who have held their commissions less than twelve years.

"13. To establish a general staff in whose hands shall be placed all matters connected with the preparation for war.

"It is not to be expected that these changes would eradicate all the troubles incident to military service or to infirmities of temper, but they would tend toward the complete unification of the two corps which must bear the burdens of the ships in time of peace and the brunt of action in time of war. The increase of harmony among our officers would likewise lead to clearer views on the organization of enlisted men and to higher efficiency, and thus to the greater glory of our flag and country."

THE FUTURE OF NAVAL WARFARE.

IN the *National Review* (London) for August Admiral Colomb presents very forcibly his reasons for looking forward to a revolution in the methods of naval warfare. The same views are expressed in Admiral Colomb's *North American Review* article (August), and the most cursory reading of the important papers on modern naval construction in the August number of *Cassier's* can hardly fail to confirm the admiral's conclusions.

In Admiral Colomb's opinion, "we are drawing close to a revolution of naval opinion more violent and far-reaching than any we have yet seen."

This revolution, he anticipates, will be caused chiefly by naval officers realizing the fact that the extraordinary speed of the torpedo-vessels will render it practically impossible for them to work together with battleships. He thus states the dilemma with which nations are confronted:

"It follows that if we have two hostile mixed fleets of battleships and torpedo-vessels, they must either work for long range with their guns or short range with their torpedoes. If they choose the former, the torpedo-vessels are no use; if they choose the latter they are a work of supererogation, a danger, and an element of confusion."

The issue between monster battleships and swift torpedo-vessels is very clearly stated by Admiral Colomb in a comparison between the *Magnificent* and the *Hornet*. It is difficult to see what is the answer to this question. It would certainly seem to the ordinary man that the *Magnificent* would have no chance at all against 26 *Hornets*. Even if she were able—which is doubtful—to sink 20 of them, the other 6 would be amply sufficient to send her to the bottom:

"The *Magnificent* was stated to cost £910,600 and the *Hornet* £34,300. That is to say, 26 *Hornets* could be put afloat for the cost of 1 *Magnificent*. The complement of the *Magnificent* was 757 men and that of the *Hornet* 42. That is to say, it would take 18 *Hornets* to expose the lives of as many men as were exposed in 1 *Magnificent*. The speed of the *Magnificent* was 17½ knots, that of the *Hornet* was 28 knots. The *Hornet* was to carry 5 torpedo-tubes. The *Magnificent* could bring perhaps 23 guns, small and great, to bear upon her at the same time, and as the excess of speed on the part of the *Hornet* was 9½ knots, it followed that if the *Magnificent* was to avoid being torpedoed by the *Hornet* any fine day in broad daylight in the open sea, she must be able to stop her by gun-fire in less, perhaps, than 7 minutes; because if she turned her stern to the *Hornet* and ran with all her might, the *Hornet*, 2,000 yards

distant at noon, would be alongside her at 6 minutes and 18 seconds after noon. But, then, no one would think of attacking a *Magnificent* with 1 *Hornet* when there would be financial gain and no more exposure of life in attacking her with 18. Would 23 guns stop 18 *Hornets* in 7 minutes? Would 4 guns stop 3 *Hornets* in 7 minutes?"

THE PROGRESS OF THE MIDDLE WEST.

THE English statistician, Mr. Michael G. Mulhall, writes in the *North American Review* for August on the development of the "Prairie States" of the Union, including under that designation Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, Missouri, Minnesota, North and South Dakota, Kansas, and Nebraska. Of these twelve States the five last named had no existence as States in 1850, while Iowa and Wisconsin had at that date just been admitted to the Union. In the whole group the population is still hardly 35 to the square mile, though it has quintupled since 1850. In no other portion of the country has immigration played so important a part as in these States, nearly one-fifth of the inhabitants, according to the last census, being of foreign birth. From 1850 to 1890 the increase of white Americans in the population of these States was 285 per cent., of colored 217 per cent., and of foreigners 563 per cent. In this interval of forty years the rate of increase in the whole Union for white Americans was 165 per cent. and for colored people 105 per cent.

"Foreign settlers are relatively most numerous in Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Dakota, where they form one-third of the population, and lowest in Missouri and Indiana, being under 10 per cent. Foremost of European immigrants are the Germans, 40 per cent. of all settlers, the States preferred by them being Illinois, Wisconsin, and Ohio. Scandinavians come next, 18 per cent., and these are chiefly congregated in Minnesota. Irish stand for 11 per cent. and are found mostly in Illinois and Ohio. Canadians have settled largely in Michigan. It is a significant fact that while the Prairie States have received a great impulse by the immigration of 4,000,000 persons from Northern Europe, the Latin element is almost unknown, the total of French, Italians, Spaniards, and Portuguese being only 60,000."

The growth of urban population in twenty years, from 1870 to 1890, was four times as rapid as that of rural population, but urban and rural stand as 1 to 3, whereas in the Eastern States they are as 2 to 2. Chicago's phenomenal growth goes far to account for the increased ratio.

AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT.

But agriculture has advanced in these States even more rapidly than population. The improved area in 1850 was about 5 acres per inhabitant; in 1890 it exceeded 8 acres. These twelve States now produce more than two-thirds of the grain and own nearly half the live-stock of the Union.

"In forty years the improved area under farms showed an advance of 157,000,000 acres, equal to 13,000 acres daily. In other words, the new farms laid down and improved between 1850 and 1890 exceeded the total superficial area of the German empire, Holland, Belgium, and Denmark collectively. There has been nothing like this in the history of mankind, nor is there any part of the world where farming is on so gigantic a scale, a census of 1890 showing a grain crop equal to three tons per inhabitant, or ten times the European average. It is true that since 1890 the production of grain has declined, the average crop for the years 1893-95 being much less; nevertheless the production of food is colossal, compared with Europe, for the Prairie States raise nearly as much grain as France, Germany, and Austria collectively, and almost twice as much meat as either France or Austria. The foremost State in food production is Iowa, with an average of 5 tons of grain and 500 pounds of meat per inhabitant, her grain crop being larger than that of Italy or Spain, although her population is only 2,000,000 souls."

"With regard to dairy products, the Prairie States have such a surplus of milch-cows (at least 2,000,000 more than necessary) that they are able to meet the deficit which exists in the Middle States and New England. Thus in 1890 they produced more than 50 per cent. of the butter of the Union. The production in these States that year averaged 23 pounds to each inhabitant, while the consumption in the Union at large was only 16 pounds, from which it may be inferred that fully one-fourth of the butter made in the Prairie States is sent to the Eastern States."

WEALTH.

"Such has been the industry of the Western farmers that their wealth increased nine-fold in forty years, the value of farms in the twelve Prairie States in 1890 being equal to the agricultural wealth of the Austrian empire. We find that during the said forty years the average number of persons engaged in farming, according to census reports, was 1,930,000, the increase in farming wealth having been \$7,596,000, or \$190,000,000 per annum; that is to say, each farming hand increased the public wealth by \$99 a year."

Three of these farmers possess as much wealth as four French, six German, or thirteen Austrian farmers, while their taxes are much lighter and they are free from the obligation of military service.

The creation of wealth in all forms has been very rapid in these States, the accumulation being two and one-half times as much as in Great Britain. In these States wealth has multiplied six-fold in thirty years, while in Great Britain it doubles but once in fifty years.

Mortgages are relatively less than in the Eastern States, amounting to one-seventh of the value of real estate.

"The only State heavily mortgaged is Kansas, where the ratio is 26 per cent. of the value of real estate; the lightest is Ohio, only 10 per cent. The rate of interest ranges from $6\frac{1}{2}$ in Ohio and Illinois to $9\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in Dakota. The sum paid yearly for interest on mortgage in the twelve States is equal to \$7 per inhabitant, against \$6 for the whole Union."

MANUFACTURES, MINING, AND RAILROADS.

"The rapid growth of population has caused a shifting of equilibrium in the occupations of the people. Thus in 1850 the Prairie States had only 1 factory operative to 7 farming hands, whereas in 1890 the figures stood relatively as 5 to 11."

"The average product per operative rose 70, wages 77 per cent., showing the advantage on the workman's side. The production of hardware is not quite sufficient for requirements, that of textiles so small that they are obtained almost wholly from New England. Food and lumber constitute the principal manufactures, some of these States carrying on the largest meat-packing business in the world. . . ."

"These States stand for 60 per cent. of the flour, 55 per cent. of the meat business, and 50 per cent. of the lumber produced in the Union, according to the last census."

"In 1890 the Prairie States produced 34,000,000 tons of coal, chiefly from Illinois and Ohio, and 8,000,000 tons of iron ore, mostly from Michigan, besides 150,000 ounces of gold and 100,000 of silver from Dakota. The total mining output was valued at \$183,000,000, or one-third of that of the Union.

"In 1895 these States possessed 94,300 miles of railroad, which represented an outlay of \$4,340,000,000, or \$45,000 per mile, being one-fourth less than the average cost of American lines. The length of the prairie railroads exceeds the aggregate of lines in France, Germany, Russia, and Austria. Each inhabitant of the Prairie States has 7 yards of railroad, against 1

yard in France or Germany and two-thirds of a yard for Europe in general."

EDUCATION.

The percentage of illiteracy for the whole population is lower in these States than in any other part of the Union, standing 5.7, as against 6.3 in New England. The foreign-born settlers in the Middle West are superior to those of the Eastern States in intelligence.

Mr. Mulhall remarks in conclusion:

"Compared with the Union at large, the Prairie States stand for 36 per cent. of population, 47 per cent. of agriculture, 34 per cent. of manufactures, 31 per cent. of mining, and 39 per cent. of wealth; so that they may be said to constitute all round 35 per cent. of the great republic. In many respects they surpass in importance five or six European empires and kingdoms rolled into one; and yet men still living can remember when their population did not exceed that of the island of Sardinia."

SPEAKER REED ON THE NEW TARIFF LAW.

THE *Illustrated American* has secured the services of the Hon. Thomas B. Reed as a regular contributor. Mr. Reed writes on matters of current public importance, and his articles are characterized by directness and vigor of expression. In the number for August 14 he discusses the passage of the tariff bill. Most people will be chiefly interested in what Mr. Reed has to say about the attitude and conduct of the House of Representatives, for which the Speaker, whether willingly or unwillingly, has had to bear so large a measure of responsibility.

In regard to the passage of the original Dingley bill by the House, Mr. Reed says:

"To pass a bill through the House of Representatives was very simple. The majority there was clear and ample. In accordance with the sentiment of the House, a bill was very carefully drawn by a ways and means committee amply competent, and it is not too much to say that the bill thus drawn and thus passed expressed more nearly the sentiment of the Republican party than the one finally adopted by both branches. It is not too much to say, also, that the House bill was a far better one for the country than the act under which we shall live, it is to be hoped, for many years."

As to the conduct of the House in desisting from farther legislation while the Senate was debating the tariff bill, the Speaker has no apologies to offer.

"When the bill went to the Senate the question arose as to the duty of the House. Should

it go on with business or await the action of the Senate? We had been called together in extraordinary session for one purpose and for one alone, and that was to dispose of the one question which was really pending before the people of the United States—a question which we all knew had to be settled and which we thought ought to be settled speedily.

"The old appropriation bills which had failed to receive the signature of the President we were obliged to consider, and did consider, sending them promptly to the Senate. What ought we then to do next?

"Of course, while the President could call us together for a special purpose, he could not limit our action. Once in session, we were at liberty to do whatever we deemed imperative for the good of the country. But we were confronted by one very simple fact. We might discuss all the questions of the hour, but we could progress not one step.

"Legislation was impossible. The two houses were radically opposed. Nobody can name a single public question on which they were or are in accord. Business therefore would be impossible, and nothing could come of it except a stirring up of the country with crude propositions which, as they could not become law, would be undertaken with no proper sense of responsibility and discussed solely on academic and political bases. What the country wanted was tariff and a rest. Hence any mere discussions would have but confused this simple issue and prevented the operation of public sentiment on the Senate.

"We therefore resisted all attempts to confuse the people and held the issue up before the whole community, with the result that the popular will has not been thwarted. There never has been a time in my experience when the dominant party of the House of Representatives has been so united and so nearly unanimous. In point of fact, it is only just to say that the better and more responsible part of the minority were in open accord and that there were others who silently agreed. It is true that some gentlemen in the Senate took this action of the House in high dudgeon and held it to be unconstitutional, but as the Senate had for years indorsed every principle involved, there was not much life in this contention."

Mr. Reed thinks a great mistake was made by the Senate in refusing to adopt the retroactive clause which would have discouraged anticipatory importations. Nevertheless it is his firm belief that confidence will now revive.

"We have learned at least one lesson worth all the suffering, and that is that the great problem

is not prices, but the employment of all our people. There is but one standard of real prosperity, and that is the whole nation at work."

JAPAN'S CURRENCY SYSTEM.

THE press reports concerning Japan's proposed change from a bimetallic basis to a gold standard have been somewhat confusing. The first complete and trustworthy account of the matter that has come to our notice is contributed by Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin to the current (June) number of the *Journal of Political Economy* of the University of Chicago. This account is based on the files of the *Japan Daily Mail*.

The existing coinage of Japan, says Professor Laughlin, is theoretically bimetallic, but actually monometallic.

"In 1871 the gold standard was adopted, the standard coin being the 20-yen piece, containing 514.4 grains of gold, nine-tenths fine (or 462.96 grains pure gold), whereby the unit, or yen, would contain (if coined) 25.72 grains standard gold, nine-tenths fine (or 23.148 grains pure gold). The issues of depreciated paper, however, prevented gold from circulating. In May, 1878, a silver yen of 416 grains standard weight (or 374.4 grains pure silver) was ordained to be a full legal tender equally with gold for all debts public and private. By law, therefore, a bimetallic system of coins was thus created at a ratio of 16.13 to 1. On the resumption of specie payments for notes, January 1, 1886, naturally silver was the cheaper and only metal used. Thereafter Japan has had in fact only a silver basis for all her currency and trade, the silver yen being to-day worth about 46.8 cents in United States gold coin."

The paper money consists of national bank notes (issued after the American system), government notes, and notes of the Central Bank (Nippon Ginko), which will soon supersede all national-bank issues. At the end of January, 1897, the circulation stood as follows:

Circulation (including reserves in national and private banks):

	Yen.
Gold coin.....	12,872,187.600
Silver coin.....	73,355,844.040
Nickel and copper coin.....	15,551,608.995
	101,779,641.535

Reserve in Nippon Ginko:

Gold.....	36,776.600
Gold bullion (receivable end of May from Chinese indemnity against issues of convertible notes).....	72,623.856
Silver coin and bullion.....	49,040.841

158,441.297

Note circulation:

Government notes.....	9,217,147.750
National bank notes.....	16,464,289.000
Nippon Ginko notes.....	190,519,446.000

216,200,882.750

Total specie and notes in circulation..317,980,524.285

A commission reported last year, by a vote of six to one, that no necessity existed which required an immediate change of standard, but such a change was favored whenever a suitable opportunity should present itself. To the Matsukata cabinet the present time has seemed peculiarly opportune. Professor Laughlin likens Japan's position to that of Germany just after the Franco-Prussian War—in receipt of a large war indemnity and eager to gain a foremost place among commercial nations. Accordingly, early in March last a new currency law was submitted to the Diet. This law, after providing for the coinage of 20-yen, 10-yen, and 5-yen pieces in gold, and for subsidiary coinage in silver, nickel, and copper, reads as follows:

Art. XIV. Should any person import gold bullion and apply to have it minted into gold coin, the government shall grant the application.

Art. XV. The gold coins already issued shall circulate at twice the rate of the gold coins issued under the provisions of this law.

Art. XVI. The silver 1-yen coins already issued shall be gradually exchanged for gold coins, according to the convenience of the government, at the rate of one gold yen for one silver yen.

Pending the completion of the exchange referred to in the last paragraph, silver 1-yen coins shall be legal tender to an unlimited extent, at the rate of one silver yen for one gold yen; and the suspension of their circulation shall be announced six months in advance, by imperial ordinance. Any of these coins not presented for exchange within a period of five full years, reckoned from the day on which their circulation is suspended, shall be regarded henceforth as bullion.

Art. XVII. The 5-yen silver coins and the copper coins already issued shall continue in circulation as before.

Art. XVIII. From the day of the promulgation of this law the coinage of 1-yen silver pieces shall cease; but this restriction shall not apply to silver bullion intrusted to the government for coinage prior to that day.

“The pith of the plan resides in accepting the existing standard and adapting the value of the new gold coins to it. Since resumption in 1886 all prices and contracts have been expressed in terms of silver, and the considerable decline in the gold price of silver since 1886 has given Japan a depreciating standard, silver having fallen at least 34 per cent. by 1895, as compared with gold, while general (European) prices since 1886 have fallen only 3 per cent. by 1895 as compared with gold. The silver standard of Japan, therefore, as compared with commodities, has depreciated about one-third. By the new

scheme present conditions are accepted (the ratio being 1 to 32.34), the gold coins are reduced to conform in general to the present value of the silver yen, but henceforth a fall in the value of silver will produce no effect on her standard of payments. The gold yen will be the unit and will contain 11.57426 grains, Troy, of pure gold (instead of 23.148 as formerly).

“In order to establish the gold standard in fact as well as in law, there must be provided by the issuers a gold reserve sufficient to redeem the note circulation in gold; and the outstanding silver yen pieces must be protected in case of future depreciation. The silver 1-yen coins, meanwhile, are an unlimited legal tender (see Art. XVI.), and as soon as a divergence exists between their bullion and their coinage value silver will tend to drive out gold. But their further coinage is stopped, and an exchange of silver yen for gold yen will maintain the silver coins at par just as certainly as the note issues are maintained at par by redemption in gold. Doubtless the whole issue of silver yen pieces can be kept in circulation without requiring a large reserve. The certainty of redemption in gold is all that is needed to prevent its presentation. The government, moreover, will have five years in which to exchange the silver for gold.”

ENGLISH AND AMERICAN STATESMANSHIP.

SENATOR GEORGE F. HOAR gives in the August *Forum* his impressions of modern statesmanship in England as compared with that of the United States.

Senator Hoar shows that in one respect, at least, conditions in the two countries are similar. Territorial expansion and growth in population and wealth have enormously increased the routine duties of administration, so that the statesman of to-day, in merely keeping the machinery of government running, finds his energies taxed to the utmost, and he has little time or strength left for originating. Mr. Hoar asserts that it is nearly impossible now for a statesman in power in either country to be a leader of advanced thought.

Senator Hoar finds one fundamental difference between conditions in England and in this country. England, he says, is still governed by a class of gentry. Her great political parties are two aristocracies, responsible to the people and competing for the confidence of the people.

“The English are a deferential people. The Englishman boasts himself of his political equality. But, in the main, John Bull loves a lord and likes to be governed by a gentleman. This power of the governing class is preserved by the

English policy of giving no pay to the members of the House of Commons; so that nobody but a man of wealth can afford to hold a seat. It is also preserved by England's policy of giving great pay to the holders of her chief executive offices, which as a rule can be reached only through distinction in Parliament. So while it is rare in England that a poor man can enter the high places of public service, no man who has reached them needs to abandon them from the necessity of getting his living.

"The power of the governing classes there is, of course, still preserved by the law of primogeniture. Mr. Webster, in his Plymouth oration, pointed out that the equal division of real property among all the children was the true basis of a popular government; that without it republican government could not exist; and that where that system prevailed a republican government must very soon be established.

"I am not able to judge whether the charge of some late English writers be true, that their landed aristocracy is changing into a plutocracy. I think, however, these statements have been much exaggerated. A like charge is frequently made as to this country; but I believe it, also, to be much exaggerated, and that the influence of wealth is, on the whole, diminishing here."

CONSTITUTIONAL DIFFERENCES.

Three influences, which Mr. Hoar designates as periodicity, locality, and confederacy, combine to distinguish the working of our Constitution from that of Great Britain. For example, no change in public opinion can compel a change of policy in our Senate, where great and small States meet as equals, unless a majority of the States agree to the change, and local interests in the smaller States may prevent the accomplishment of the expressed desires of the numerical majority of the American people as a whole. Here, then, is a conservative principle.

"This country is a compound of nation and confederacy. But in practice the influence of locality is much greater than even obedience to the Constitution demands. I am inclined to think that the operation of this single principle has more to do in distinguishing the public life of America from that of Great Britain than all our written Constitutions, State or national, would have without it."

Mr Hoar shows how this principle of locality has been developed and how it influences our political life:

"Even before the adoption of the Constitution, many of our States were essentially aggregations of separate towns or municipalities. Very early it was enacted in Massachusetts that the

Representative must be an inhabitant of the town from which he was chosen. The consequence of this example has been most far-reaching. Throughout our Constitution and in all our political habits we deal with separate localities on the principle of an entire equality. The Senators and Representatives in Congress must be citizens of the States they represent. With very few exceptions, indeed, Representatives in Congress are taken from the districts where they dwell. The same thing is true of State Legislatures. In the choice of judges of the higher and lower courts, national and State, they are expected to represent fairly the different States and localities. The same thing is true in the formation of the Cabinet and the selection of nearly one hundred and fifty thousand executive officers.

"This necessity for considering locality in the selection of persons for high national offices embarrasses the American people at every step. No man, with rare exception, can have any considerable opportunity for public service, although he may be in accord with an overwhelming majority of his countrymen, unless he also happen to be in accord with the locality in which he dwells. When Mr. Webster was Secretary of State, Mr. Choate was the undisputed head of the American bar, unless Mr. Webster himself were to be excepted. It might easily have happened that, at the same time, the man of all others in the country fitted for Secretary of the Treasury would also have dwelt in Boston; or the fittest persons for these three offices might have been found living together in New York City; yet it would never have done to make Choate Attorney-General or Abbott Lawrence Secretary of the Treasury while Webster was in the Department of State. I suppose it would scarcely cause a remark if the three most important men in the English Cabinet dwelt next door to each other in London, or had adjoining estates in the country. . . ."

"This condition of things tempts able men, who have a natural and honorable ambition for political office, constantly to watch and yield to the varying moods of special constituencies. In this way men become great political leaders. This diminishes the permanent power of political parties; but it tends to deprive men of the civic courage which makes them the guides and lights of their age, and likewise deprives such leaders of the power to accomplish their purposes."

From this latter statement, however, Senator Hoar, as a loyal son and servant of Massachusetts, hastens to except that State:

"It has been the beauty and comfort of her public service that she has permitted those whom she has called to it the largest freedom in acting

according to their own conscience and their own judgment. She will overlook almost anything in a public man except the violation of his own conscience for the sake of pleasing her."

DIFFERENCES IN TRAINING.

The methods by which the ranks of statesmanship are recruited in the two countries are quite dissimilar:

"The want of certainty of the statesman's hold upon power, of which I have spoken, and the lack of inherited wealth, deprive us of the advantage of a class of men trained for statesmanship from youth. The questions with which the public man in this country has to deal require long and exclusive study to master them. Such study is impossible if he have at the same time to get his own living. He must, therefore, be a man of inherited wealth, or must be taken from some other calling to which he has devoted himself long enough to have laid by a competency sufficient for his support, and suitable provision for his family. So we have rarely here men like those so numerous in England, who are trained to public affairs from their youth. Wordsworth's

"Blessed statesman he, whose mind's unselfish will
Leaves him at ease among grand thoughts."

may perhaps still be found in considerable numbers in England; but in this country his high thinking must go with very plain living indeed if he have to live on his salary. We have here what England lacks—the training for larger service of the town meeting, the city council, and the exercise of State legislative and administrative offices. We have, too, the interest in public affairs which belongs to a republic where every man feels a responsibility and expects to understand what is going on. The Yankee baby seems to draw in a knowledge of Parliamentary law with his infant breath, and before he can walk is ready to rise in his cradle and raise a point of order upon his nurse. So, able and well-educated men, although their lives may have been devoted to private affairs, come to the public service, even late in life, with an intelligent interest, an extent of information, and an aptness for their work which I think are lacking in the ordinary Englishman."

CAPACITY FOR GOVERNING.

"England, doubtless, governs well. She obtained her great Indian empire by unjustifiable means; but she rules it better and better from generation to generation. There are no better examples of a great governing race than the men she has sent out to India during the last fifty years—the Lawrences, the Stephens, and their

companions. 'The sahibs don't like us,' said an Indian philosopher, 'but they are absolutely just, and they do not fear the face of man.' While England has trained this race of gentlemen to govern well her three hundred and fifty millions of subjects, the United States have not governed Alaska nor their two hundred and fifty thousand Indian dependants even decently.

"Whatever changes for the better or worse have happened in either country, it is still true that while the English statesman is devoted to the glory and greatness of England, and while he desires to extend her empire, and while he desires to maintain her honor unstained, the great object and purpose of all his statesmanship is that he shall be able to hand down his broad acres, his ancestral dwelling, and his stately trees from eldest son to eldest son for generations to come, though a thousand paupers starve in their hovels and though every fifth person in the kingdom must, some time in his life, receive aid from the State. On the other hand, the great object of American statesmanship has been, is, and is to be, to keep up wages and to educate a whole people who shall dwell in happy and comfortable homes and not in huts or hovels."

IS THE FRENCH REPUBLIC A FAILURE?

IN refutation of recent attempts to prove the emptiness of French republicanism and the tendencies to a restoration of royalty exhibited by the French people, Mr. Henry Haynie contributes an effective article to the August number of the *National Magazine* (Boston).

As Mr. Haynie remarks, while there may be discussion over opinions, there can be none over facts, and it is a fact that the republic has existed in France for nearly twenty-seven years.

"No reign in France during the past one hundred and twenty-three years has ever lasted so long as the present French republic. It has endured ten years longer than the reign of Louis XVI.; sixteen years longer than the reign of Napoleon; twenty-two years longer than the Restoration; nine years longer than Orleanism; nine years longer than the last empire. It has already endured for twenty-seven years, and in the mean time the national work has flourished, for it has been protected by perfect order. The republic has paid the heaviest indemnity ever exacted by a victorious army, a matter of one billion dollars, and, thanks to the universal confidence which has been manifested, she has reduced the interest of the national debt considerably. It is true she has reconstructed her military system and strengthened her army corps, but she has also renewed her system of instruction and in-

creased her appropriations for public schools. Meanwhile she has invited the world to her peaceful *fêtes*, and all the royal splendors that Europe ever knew paled before the Paris exhibitions of 1878 and 1889. The people of France have only to remember that which the republic has done between September 4, 1870, and the present time to feel supreme confidence in the destiny of their republic."

THE OPPOSITION.

After recounting the perils and difficulties amid which the republic came into being and the dangers threatened by Boulangism ten years ago, Mr. Haynie declares that France has been made thoroughly republican:

"It is true there are still a few thousand monarchists among the several million voters who are not in favor of the republic, but this is because of their personal attachment and devotion to the princes in exile. If ever these absent pretenders should see fit to release them of this sentimental 'loyalty,' they would gladly rally to the republic, for they know that there is no possible show for a king or an emperor in fair France ever more. The only real enemies of the French republic who need be counted are the Socialists and the Radicals, who, regarding moderation in politics as the greatest of crimes, hate moderate Republicans, and it is these latter who are so wisely and so well guiding the ship of state to-day. Like Socialists and Radicals the world over, these French disturbers of law and order make much noise and utter words which do sometimes create the impression abroad that the French republic is in a bad way. But it is not, and if anything can be inferred from the signs of the times it will last quite as many years as our own republic. The workingmen of the cities, the peasantry, indeed, a vast majority of the voting population, have learned to appreciate the advantages presented by the present republic, and they are aware that no monarchy could be restored without a civil war, which means universal ruin.

"No, there is not any danger of a speedy fall of the French republic, nor is there any important opposition to the government of which President Faure is the illustrious chief and Messrs. Méline, Hanotaux, and the other ministers are the admirable administrators. I venture to assert this as one who lived in France for nearly twenty years, and as a close observer of the political, social, and other conditions of that country. I know the French people well, all classes and all parties, and I repeat it, there are no signs of discontent worthy of serious consideration here. There is no opposition of any account to the French republic, and if its 'governments,' that

is to say, ministries, are so frequently overturned, that does not mean danger to the existing order of things. It means precisely what a change of government means in the United States, i.e., the 'outs' are always in opposition, and so it happens the 'ins' are often displaced, not so frequently maybe as in France, but then that is because our cast-iron form of government does not permit of easy changes."

THE KING OF SIAM AND HIS KINGDOM.

MR. PERCY CROSS STANDING contributes to the *Cornhill Magazine* an interesting paper on "Siam and the King's Visit." He says that the Siamese royal family is at once the acme of Oriental antiquity and of Oriental modernity. The King of Siam, who is now making a tour through Europe, has been upon the throne for twenty-eight years. Mr. Standing says:

"He is a handsome man, of medium height and distinguished mien. He is by way of being a capital English scholar, and the reforms that he has from time to time introduced and carried out in his country have been essentially British—this being all the more interesting and instructive from the circumstance that not only are a large proportion of the European officials in Siamese employ of Danish and German nationality, but that the 'general adviser and minister plenipotentiary' to the court of Bangkok has been a Belgian, none other than the well-known publicist, M. Rolin-Jacquemyns. But the innovations and reforms are, as has been said, almost without exception British. This is only just. For the commerce of Siam with the outside world is in the startling ratio of about 95 per cent. British to 5 per cent. French.

"The railroads of Siam are British, the telegraphs and telephones are more British than otherwise, the police and prison system have been remodeled as much as possible after British patterns, and so, too, has the army. The navy (so called) has been more at the mercy of a knot of Danish officers of varying degrees of knowledge and experience, at whose head has stood a gentleman bearing the extraordinary nomenclature—for a Dane—of Commodore du Plessis de Richelieu."

Mr. Standing views with apprehension French aggrandizement in Siam:

"By the convention of last year, to which France and England were parties, it was agreed to indemnify Siam from the eventuality of interference by other powers, while practically dividing between France and England the first-fruits of the former's territorial encroachments upon King Chulalongkorn's dominions. To the latter ruler

now but remains Bangkok and the fertile country surrounding it; Luang Phrabang—part of which, he it observed, is situated upon either bank of the disputed Mekong River—is probably the finest and richest of the 'spoils' garnered in by France."

Mr. Standing also contributes an article on the same subject to the *Nineteenth Century*, in which he refers to the curious story that Russian officers are about to attempt the training and drilling of a Siamese army of thirty-five thousand men.

Miss B. A. Smith contributes to the *Contemporary Review* for June a brief and somewhat fragmentary sketch of England's royal visitor. Miss Smith was one of the women who founded a school for women in Bangkok, and she speaks well of the support which she received from the king. She warns the English that when the king arrives they will find

"We have a 'chiel amang us takin' notes' with the cautious and humorous observation of the clever Oriental. Very little of that which passes before him will escape the king's notice. Let those who surround him, European and Siamese, look to it that the king has at least a glimpse of the dark as well as of the bright side of European civilization. If he could see by some flash of inspiration the degraded conditions under which so many millions live in civilized England and realize how necessary an adjunct some of these conditions are to the dazzling polish of 'society,' would he be eager to transplant our customs to Siam, without counting the cost? Serfdom lingers openly in Siam; but there the poor man is never hungry and seldom discontented or vicious. Polygamy is legal; but no woman is outcast if faithful to her best feelings, and monstrous inhumanity to children is almost unknown. Alas! that all such evils should thickly crowd in the wake of much that is named 'civilization.'"

AN ANGLO-INDIAN NOVELIST.

Interview with Mrs. F. A. Steel.

THE *Young Woman* for August publishes an interview with Mrs. Steel, in which the interviewer extracted from this popular writer some particulars as to her birth and career. She was born, it seems, on a Good Friday, which leads her to make the following observation:

"There is an old Scotch saying that children born on that day see spirits. Perhaps that is why I have a leaning toward the occult, and have felt so much in sympathy with the East, its weird traditions and superstitions and the strange fancies of its population. And, curiously enough, when I opened my dispensary at Kussour and

attended eighty cases a day, my success with my patients lay in the fact that they believed I possessed what they called 'a lucky hand.'"

As inspectress of the government schools in the Punjab and member of the educational committee, she had to award the government grants.

"My first book was written in 1884, and entitled 'Wide Awake.' In 1887 I published 'A Complete Indian Cook and Housekeeper Guide.' This has been one of my most successful books; it has already run through three editions, and, I believe, will go through three more. I published it privately, and I have had innumerable letters at various times saying what a help it has been to young housekeepers in the East. I wrote the 'Tales from the Punjab' when I was thirty-five.

"I was past thirty when I published my first volume of folk-tales, which has recently been reprinted. I have also written text-books on elementary physiology, hygiene, and domestic economy, which are used in the girls' schools of India, with which I was connected for twenty-five years; and I and my girls made all the embroideries which decorated the Prince of Wales' room when he visited India."

She went out to India, and made her name in a very different sphere from that of novel writer:

"My experience has taught me that if you would have the best of the world, you must give fully yourself, and then only will it repay you. And if you are always desirous of keeping your life 'sun-rayed,' you must learn to laugh, even though you can feel the strong pathos and see the pity of every-day circumstances, disillusion, and sorrows. I love Thackeray, and I understand his writings better than any I have ever read, for he was always capable of laughing when his heart was hurt, and he could also make his readers laugh at his own tears."

When asked about her religious views she said:

"Personally, I have very broad views on religious subjects, and I feel we have no right to disturb any religion which enables those who belong to it to seek an ideal beyond the visible world. In my schools I have always allowed whatever Bible—whether the Shastras, the Holy Grunth, or the Koran—my scholars preferred. I feel that it matters little what compass we study provided it is fairly true to the pole. I think missionaries do very good work among the lowest caste whose religion is very debased, whose position is degraded. I do not honestly think we have much right to thrust our nineteenth-century religion, with the civilization which it has called into existence, down the throats of a nation which

in many ways seems to me more moral than we are."

"That is not the general opinion."

"No, I suppose not; but that does not alter mine, and I am a great believer in the saying, 'The truth and one make a majority.' I have always had a prejudice against adopting other people's views on any subject I have personally studied."

Mrs. Steel adds that in the mystery of manhood and womanhood lies the great social impetus of the coming generation, of which the woman of to-day is but the herald.

THE RETURN OF THE JEWS TO PALESTINE.

THERE are few subjects which exercise so perennial a fascination over the minds of many good people as the possibility of such a magnificent-fulfilling of the prophecies as would be involved in the return of the Jews to Palestine. Dr. Emil Reich contributes to the *Nineteenth Century* for August an article which will fill these good people with ecstatic delight, for he tells us that the Jews are actually moving back to the Holy Land, moving along into two distinct groups, to which he gives the names of the religious and political Zionists. The religious Zionists are already in the field sending out colonists every year, so that they have already begun the re-peopling of the Holy Land by the chosen people, but of much more interest is the action of the political Zionists, who have started their movement as a kind of counterblast to anti-Semitism.

"The work of the political Zionists has been up to this writing one of open propaganda for the establishment of a new Jewish State proper. Dr. Herzl, in a pamphlet published last year in several languages, boldly advances the idea that whereas the condition of the Jews in Christian countries is at present one of unbearable humiliation; and whereas anti-Semitism, or the engine of that general hatred and persecution of the modern Jews, is triumphant to a degree, so that no plausible means of stemming its tide can be, nor has been, suggested: be it resolved, that the Jews of all countries who, after all, are nothing but Jews, and have never, nor will they ever, really assimilate with the nations among whom they live—that the Jews, the doctor says, shall abandon the inhospitable fields of Europe, and, repairing to Palestine, there re-establish their ancient State. Nor is the great journalist at a loss as to the precise institutions, laws, constitution, etc., to be adopted by that new State."

During the past month a congress has been held in the town of Basle, Switzerland, for the purpose of discussing this scheme.

Dr. Reich, who describes this new and interesting development of the Jews, does not think that Zionism is likely to succeed at present, or on its present basis, simply because its Moses has not yet appeared. It must be admitted that Max Nordau is a very poor substitute for Moses. Dr. Reich says:

THE WEAKNESSES OF ZIONISM.

"The religious Zionists, therefore, by suppressing the national element in the dual character of Judaism, place themselves in an altogether false position, and will never achieve what in their innermost hearts they ardently wish to realize. The political Zionists, of the type of Dr. Nordau and Dr. Herzl, commit the opposite mistake or false feint; they suppress and disregard the religious element in the dual character of Judaism, and will consequently achieve still less than their opponents. It is hopeless to appeal to purely utilitarian and opportunist motives in trying to move a complex of people whose great hope and central interest are of a religious character. An exodus of Jews cannot be brought about by a power propped up by considerations of mere nationalism. For in the first place there are no greater anti-Semites than many of the Jews themselves. It is no exaggeration to say that nearly all modern Jews, who have received a genteel education at colleges and universities, are more inclined to anti-Semitism than Christians of the same social status. It is mere folly to think that those anti-Semitic Jews who are among the best gifted and most influential will associate themselves in a risky enterprise with the very people whom they inwardly detest. He who undertakes to unite men of so utterly divergent opinions and emotional tempers must needs have recourse to the one and solitary agency that can work such marvels—to religion. The two doctors, however, disregard religion; their enterprise is therefore divested of all chances of success. The exodus of the Jews of to-day from Europe can only be made in a manner in no way different from that in which was achieved their exodus from Egypt some three thousand years ago. A Moses is required; a man full of divine inspiration and an energy fraught with religious zeal. Religion is not, like feudalism or guilds, a mere phenomenon of the Middle Ages; it is an historic category, an indestructible factor of all national life, and, with the Jews, the factor of all factors. The anti-Semitic Jews will keep aloof from Dr. Herzl's enterprise because they dislike the nationality which the doctor wants to perpetuate. The pious and loyal Jews will keep aloof from it because it disregards the religious element of Judaism."

A STUDY OF MARTIN LUTHER.

From a Non-Theological Standpoint.

THE first place in the *Quarterly Review* for July is devoted to a very careful study of Martin Luther. The author disclaims any theological prepossession of prejudice. He studies Luther as a great figure in history, not as a Lutheran or an opponent of Rome.

A TYPICAL PEASANT.

His point of view may be gathered from the following passage:

"He has himself given us the true key to his character in his well-known boast that he was 'a peasant and the son of a peasant.' Yes; that is true. Luther was first and before all things a peasant: a German peasant—*Germanissimus*, we may say. From first to last his tone and temper are those of a peasant. He has the mind of a peasant, full of ardent and tumultuous passions, utterly undisciplined, coarse and material in its view of all things, human and divine. He has the virtues of a peasant: doggedness of purpose, indefatigable energy, bull-dog courage. He has the vices of a peasant: extravagance and excess, blind trust and incurable suspicion, boastful self-confidence, and the narrow-mindedness of intense subjectivity and most restricted intellectual vision. His speech is ever that of a peasant. His mind was quite uncritical. Grace of culture was utterly unknown to him. But he wielded with supreme dominion the High Dutch dialect spoken by his countrymen, and made of it the German language. And no less candid and conscientious controversialist than Luther ever lived. Caricature and calumny, rancorous invective and reckless misrepresentation, were his ordinary polemical weapons. Of all the stimulants to popular passion, abuse is the most potent. To Luther must be conceded the distinction of being *facile princeps* in the art of vituperation. No writer with whom we are acquainted comes within measurable distance of him in power of fierce flagellation and fetid foulness. A really astonishing amalgam of unmeasured violence and unrestrained vulgarity does duty with him for argument. To call names, the vilest and most virulent, is merely his method of signifying disagreement."

BUT A TITAN.

Notwithstanding this defect of Luther's controversial method, the reviewer cannot blind himself to the essential grandeur of the man. He says:

"All men were in expectation. And Luther appeared: one of the most dramatic figures ever seen on the world's stage: the predestined leader of the great revolution which was to shatter the

vast fabric of Christendom and to introduce into the world a new era. Of the greatness, the Titanic greatness of the man, there can be no question. The greatness of the revolution wrought by him is manifest to all men. It is strictly accurate to ascribe to him the Protestant Reformation and all that came of it."

Nor was it only the Protestant Reformation which we owe to him. The true reformation, as Cardinal Manning used to be never weary of impressing upon us, was that which was accomplished by the Council of Trent, and the reviewer lays stress upon the fact that but for Luther no such council would have been held.

WHO REFORMED ROME AND BEGOT THE REVOLUTION.

Luther, in fact, exercised an influence upon the Roman Church second only to that which he exerted on the Church which bears his name. The reviewer says:

"Luther's revolution served the cause of Roman Catholicism in another way. It imposed upon Roman Catholics the necessity of giving a rational account of the faith that was in them. It sent them back to a study of the sources of their doctrines, long buried under a mass of sophisms and superstitions. It quickened into new life both their theology and their philosophy. Nor is this all. In religion, as elsewhere, perpetual combat is the law and the condition of vitality. Orthodox or evangelical Protestantism, which is still a considerable power in the world, was Luther's creation. Nor is it only in the distinctly religious domain that Luther's teaching has been so influential and so far-reaching. The French revolutionists, like the Anabaptists before them, merely applied in the sphere of politics the principles which Luther had laid down in the sphere of theology. They are debtors to Luther for that doctrine of the sovereignty of the individual which is the very foundation of Rousseau's '*Contrat Social*.'"

THE REVERSE OF THE MEDAL.

Luther's influence thus operated in many directions, producing many results from which Luther himself would have recoiled in horror:

"If any fact of history is certain, it is this: that Luther's so-called 'evangelical freedom' was the absolute destruction of all freedom of conscience. One immediate result, then, of the Lutheran revolution was to rivet the spiritual slavery of the German people. Another was to fit them for that slavery by undermining such moral ideals as the indulgence-mongers had left among them. There is much evidence to show that one immediate consequence of his revolution was a frightful increase of wickedness and vice.

Luther's own testimony to the fact is copious, and would be conclusive if we could be quite sure that it is not vitiated by his habitual exaggeration. He does not hesitate to say that the last state of the regions which had received his teaching was worse than the first; and he owns that his doctrine of justification, as popularly apprehended, or misapprehended, was largely responsible for this result. As his life draws to a close, so does his view of the moral effect of his work grow darker and darker. And here, no doubt, is one reason of the ever-increasing melancholy which characterizes his later years. Again, the immediate influence of Lutheranism upon intellectual cultivation was such as to realize the worst fears of Erasmus."

HIS CHIEF SERVICE.

Nevertheless, notwithstanding these mischiefs, which Luther himself deplored as much as any one, the reviewer concludes that on the whole Luther relieved the spirit of man from an intolerable bondage.

"The principles in virtue of which Luther broke the yoke of indulgence-mongers are equally fatal—although Luther did not perceive it—to the yoke of Bibliolaters. And so we may, with Goethe, confess a debt to him in respect of that freedom from the fetters of spiritual narrowness—'*von den Fesseln geistiger Borniertheit*'—characteristic of this new age, which is of all liberties the most precious, which is the true foundation and the real safeguard of all."

FATHER HYACINTHE.

AN interesting sketch of the career of Père Hyacinthe Loyson, the most eminent religious reformer in France, appears in the *Open Court* for August.

Père Hyacinthe is now seventy years of age. Ever since his excommunication from the Church of Rome, in 1869, he has been engaged in efforts to bring about a restoration of what he has conceived to be the ancient purity of Catholicism. In 1872 he married an American lady whom he had converted to Catholicism, and who has since loyally aided him in his labors of reform.

"His marriage was the beginning of a new period in his career. In 1877 he returned to Paris, and after eight years of silence again appeared before the people in the rôle of a religious preacher. His reappearance created an enormous stir, his lectures at the Cirque d'Hiver being extraordinarily successful. After a sojourn of five years in Switzerland, which he devoted to the cause of Catholic reform in that country,

Père Hyacinthe founded the first Gallican Catholic church in Paris in 1879. With this bold act he reached the acme of his reformatory career, which may be epitomized in the remark that he is the renovator of the ancient Gallican Catholicism which, while recognizing the primacy of the Bishop of Rome, rejected his infallibility in religious and his authority in political matters. The doctrines of the ancient national church found in Père Hyacinthe a staunch defender.

"But the significance of his labors is not only that of a return to the vigorous and independent ideas of the past; his glance is also directed to the future. Christianity must be regenerated on a broader basis and on one conforming absolutely with modern science. It is useless to struggle against the spirit of modern science; we must march with progress, not against it. And it is his contention that in order to meet fully the needs of present and future humanity, Roman Catholicism must not only be reformed, but transformed. 'What is false in it must perish, what is true must be made more true, more full of life, more comprehensive.'"

THE PREACHER'S MESSAGE.

In answer to the *Open Court's* inquiry, "What is your position?" Père Hyacinthe wrote:

"I am not a philosopher nor a writer. I am a humble preacher, moved by God, as I firmly believe, to utter in an enslaved church the cry of deliverance. In regaining for myself the sacred rights of thought, conscience, and of heart, I have claimed them for all.

"Like the shepherd of Horeb, I have heard the voice which speaks in the desert and in the fire. It proclaims the absolute God, yet withal a personal and living God. It says, as of old, 'I am He who is.' I have put off my shoes from my feet, for the ground on which we walk is holy: I have hidden my countenance, for I dare not look the Eternal in the face.

"And the voice which affirmed the sovereignty of the Absolute Being now proclaims the liberty of created existences: Thou shalt say unto the children of Israel: 'He that is hath sent me to you.'

"And the Eternal said to me farther: 'I have seen the affliction of my people who are in bondage in the Catholic Church, and I have heard the cries which their taskmasters have caused them to utter. Come now, therefore, I will send thee unto Pharaoh, who sitteth in the Vatican, that thou mayest bring forth my people, the children of Israel, out of Egypt.'

"But the children of Israel did not hearken unto me. They have not only ceased to believe

in Christ and the Church, but also in the living God and in the immortal soul. They have found in the depths of their moral being naught but the response of death. They have preferred the flesh-pots of Egypt with bondage to labor and sacrifice with liberty. Let them continue, then, to prostrate themselves before the idols in which they no longer believe: I and my house shall serve the Eternal."

The *Open Court* writer closes with a tribute to Père Hyacinthe's matchless eloquence and to the deep sincerity which has caused him to be called the new Lamennais.

THE LATE FATHER HEWIT.

THE August number of the *Catholic World* opens with an editorial tribute to the Very Rev. Augustine F. Hewit, D.D., Superior of the Paulist Fathers, who died in July last.

Father Hewit was of New England birth and ancestry, the son of a Congregational clergyman, and a graduate of Amherst College in the same class (1839) with Dr. Storrs, of Brooklyn, and the late Bishop Huntington. Soon after graduation from college he came under the influence of the Tractarian movement led by Newman and others in England. He joined the Protestant Episcopal Church and remained in that communion for six years, but finally felt impelled to connect himself, once for all, with the Church of Rome.

Concerning this action on the part of young Hewit the writer in the *Catholic World* says:

"He had no acquaintance with Catholics nor with Catholicity in the concrete; no share in ultra and obstinate Protestantism, none of that bitterness which, unfortunately, too often is a characteristic of later Ritualists. His desire to follow conscience received an added force from the critical state of his health at the time. Threatened with acute pulmonary trouble and subject to hemorrhages, he had been forced to go South, to a plantation in North Carolina, to delay, if he could not escape, a fatal termination of the disease. Here, facing the prospect of death, he determined on the step which brought the fullest satisfaction to mind and conscience. He was received into the Church early in 1846, and a year later, March 25, 1847, was ordained priest."

THE REDEMPTORIST MISSION.

Soon after his admission to the priesthood Father Hewit joined the community of Redemptorist Fathers in Baltimore, and of this part of his career the writer says:

"Despite his size and build, Father Hewit never was a physically powerful man, never en-

joyed reliable and robust health; yet with his associates he did giant work. The mission band, composed of Father Bernard, Fathers Walworth, Hecker, Hewit, and, later, Fathers Baker and Deshon, has never had an equal in the mission record of this country. Less dramatic and incisive than Father Walworth, who was the great preacher, Father Hewit in his efforts was more sustained. Possessed of a powerful voice, gifted with sensibility, his cogent and finished discourses, his splendid appearance, his comminatory and vituperative force, made him a great and a successful missionary."

THE PAULIST COMMUNITY.

The founding of the Institute of St. Paul the Apostle, in 1859, marked a new era in Father Hewit's life. It has been said of the leaders in this movement that Father Hewit was always the scholar and theologian, Father Hecker the man of original inspirations, Father Deshon the man of practical affairs. What is known as the Paulist Rule was the work of Father Hewit.

"The Paulist Rule reflects, as might be expected, the natural and spiritual characteristics of its chief framer. His aristocratic temperament, his appreciation of the religious virtue of obedience, are seen in the widely extended scope of its governing authority. While his hopeful trust in regenerate manhood and priestly consecration show forth in that liberty of truth granted the individual, his appreciative unutilitarian view of the purpose of common life is marked by the emphasis given its first end—sanctification, personal and collective; the broadness of his mind in its second and practical end—apostolic labors—whether in great centers of population by quassmissions, exercises, preaching, music, ritual; whether and necessarily by what the papal brief creating the institute called *Expeditiones Sacre*—for increasing of Catholic life among the faithful; or more specially still, by labor for the conversion of those who know the truth, by written or spoken word—all these are equally legitimate and sanctioned ends, all have the promise of God's blessing and the institute's approval."

Father Hewit was honored in 1885 with the degree of Doctor of Divinity from Rome, but Amherst College, his *alma mater*, had already conferred the same distinction upon him—a tribute of personal esteem, as the *Catholic World* says, but at the same time a merited recognition of unusual attainments in theology and literature.

Father Hewit's golden jubilee, the fiftieth anniversary of his ordination in the priesthood, was celebrated on March 28 of the present year and called forth many expressions of good-will.

THE NEW ADMINISTRATION IN CANADA.

IN the *Yale Review* for August Mr. Edward Porritt reviews the work of the first regular session of the Canadian Parliament under the new Liberal government of Sir Wilfrid Laurier. This government, it will be remembered, came into office as a result of the general election in June, 1896. Parliament met for a brief session in the autumn of that year to pass the estimates, but little more was then done. It met again March 25, 1897, and remained in session till June 29, and it was in this session that the Laurier government virtually began its legislative career.

Mr. Porritt is at some pains to explain the composition of the Dominion Parliament, evidently thinking, with reason, that readers in the United States may not all be thoroughly informed on the subject.

PARTY STRENGTH IN COMMONS AND SENATE.

"The House of Commons now consists of 213 members. This number is less by 2 than in the Parliaments of 1887 and 1891. The diminution in numbers is due to the reapportionment which followed the disappointing census of 1890. The general election in 1896 and the several by-elections which occurred between the general election and the second session of Parliament resulted in the return of 122 Liberals, and gave the Laurier government a majority of 34 over the Conservatives and the Independents, including with the latter 3 Patrons of Industry, who, however, generally voted with the government. The Liberal government in the House of Commons was as well supported as any government since that of 1882-87, which was Conservative and had a majority of 68. In the Senate, however, the members of the Conservative opposition were overwhelmingly in a majority, and the Liberal government in the Senate was in as bad a plight as the Gladstone and Rosebery administrations of 1892-95, with respect to the House of Lords.

"The Canadian Senators are appointed by the government. They hold office for life. As now constituted, the Senate consists of 78 members. At the time the change of government took place in 1896, the Conservatives had been in power 18 years. From the time the last Liberal administration went out of office in 1878, all the appointees to the Senate had been of the Conservative party, with the result that when the Laurier administration came into power there were only 9 Liberals in the Senate. The new government, in the exercise of powers conferred by the North America act, was able to appoint the Speaker. Several vacancies also existed at

the time of the change in the administration. These were promptly filled by the appointment of Liberals; and by the opening of the late session the government had been enabled to bring up its numerical strength in the Senate to 16."

THE "OTTAWA PROGRAMME."

The reforms proposed by the Canadian Liberals were embodied in what is known as the "Ottawa Programme," which was formulated as long ago as 1893. This programme included a demand for the abolition of the Dominion electoral franchise created in 1887, and a return to the old system of provincial franchises for Dominion elections; a tariff for revenue only, closer trade relations with England and with the United States; a reform of the Senate, and a plebiscite on the prohibition question. To these issues was added the Manitoba school question, and on this platform the Liberals fought and won the general election of 1896.

CANADA'S NEW TARIFF.

The most important measure of the new Parliament was, of course, the tariff, which was submitted to the House of Commons by Mr. Fielding, the Minister of Finance, on April 22. Mr. Porritt points out that this new tariff was a departure from the tariff of the Conservative governments in only one important direction. Protective duties heretofore had been levied on imports from England in the same way as on imports from the United States or any other country. The Canadian manufacturers had always insisted quite as strongly on protection against English-made goods as against those manufactured in the United States or Germany, but in the new tariff preferences for England were established, and, as Mr. Porritt says, with these discriminations in favor of Great Britain there came a specific warning from the minister of finance that Canadian manufacturers must not regard themselves as holding a vested interest in the continuance of the protective system.

"During the first fifteen months of the new tariff, the concession to England consists of a reduction by one-eighth of the duties chargeable under the general list. At the end of that time, that is, on the last of July, 1898, the reduction will be one-fourth. The reductions do not apply to wines, malt liquors, spirits, and tobacco, the taxes on which are essentially for revenue. While England was admitted at once to the advantages of the reduced tariff, this tariff is not to be applicable to England alone. In July it was extended to the products of New South Wales, the free-trade colony of the British Australasian group; and any country can come within

its provisions whose government can satisfy the comptroller of customs at Ottawa that it is offering favorable treatment to Canadian exports, and is affording them as easy an entrance through its customs houses as the Canadians give by means of the reciprocal tariff. It is also possible, under a later amendment to the tariff act, for the governor in council to extend the benefits of the reciprocal tariff to any country entitled thereto by virtue of a treaty with Great Britain."

This law owes its chief importance to the establishment of an inner tariff in the interests of countries dealing favorably with Canada. Mr. Porritt does not consider the tariff changes as directly hostile to the United States, since this country can have the same advantages as England if it cares to reestablish reciprocity like that under the Elgin-Marcy treaty. The Canadian free list is larger than it was formerly, and furthermore, on certain articles proximity to Canada counts for more than preferential rates, so that the United States will continue to enjoy a large trade with Canada. Last year it was estimated that the dutiable goods imported from England by Canada were of the net value of \$24,366,000. Those from the United States were of the value of \$29,101,000. Of the articles on the free list, Canada imported from England goods of the value of \$7,100,000, while in the same period they received from the United States goods on the free list of the value of \$21,150,000. Thus the balance is in favor of the United States both as regards dutiable and free imports.

THE ALIEN LABOR LAW.

The government was committed to a measure in retaliation for the United States alien contract labor laws. The bill first introduced for this purpose was a copy of the American law, but the government's amendments changed its character and finally made it a much less aggressive measure.

"The act, as it now stands, is of nine clauses. Six of them—those dealing with the scope and objects of the measure, with the penalties to be imposed, with the list of exemptions, and with the mode of returning alien contract laborers—are copied nearly word for word from the American acts. But instead of it being made the duty of a State department to appoint labor law inspectors to enforce the act, the Canadian law leaves this duty to the common informer, whom the receiver-general of the Dominion may reward, as he deems reasonable and just, out of penalties received from employers who contravene the law. The act farther provides that no proceedings under it shall be instituted without the consent of the Attorney-General of Canada, or

some person duly authorized by him; and that it shall apply 'only to such foreign countries as have enacted and retain in force, or as enact and retain in force, laws or ordinances applying to Canada of a character similar to this act.'"

In respect to government works, Mr. Porritt regards the legislation of 1897 as the most interesting of the recent history of Canada. Four transportation schemes obtained parliamentary approval. One of these, the extension of the Intercolonial Railway from Levis to Montreal, was rejected by the Senate in its original form, but the other three schemes were fully approved by Parliament. One of these provides for the establishment of a fast line of steamers between Canadian ports and Liverpool; another establishes a system of transporting Canadian produce in cold storage to England, and still another provides for the construction of a new branch of the Canadian Pacific Railroad through Crow's Nest Pass to Nelson, in British Columbia. The new line is three hundred and thirty miles long. It is to be subsidized by the government to the amount of eleven thousand dollars a mile. In return for the subsidy, the government reserves the right to give other railroads running powers over the line. The Canadian Pacific Railroad also undertakes to make permanent reductions in freight rates over certain large sections of its line and to convey to the crown in the interests of Canada fifty thousand acres of coal land in British Columbia.

The most noteworthy subsidy scheme undertaken by the government, however, had to do with ocean transportation. It is a new thing for the Canadian Government to embark so extensively in this form of enterprise. Of the subsidy to be paid by the Dominion and imperial governments jointly for a new fast mail line, Canada becomes responsible for two-thirds. Four steamers are to be built, two of them to be ready by the end of May, 1899, and the other two by May 1, 1900. As soon as the first two vessels are ready, a fortnightly service will be established and the owners will receive half the subsidies. After May, 1900, there is to be a weekly service. Montreal and Quebec are to be the ports for the new line during the summer months. In the winter and spring, when the St. Lawrence is closed by ice, the steamers are to sail either from Halifax or St. John, at the option of the owners. This line will form the Atlantic link in the British route to the Orient.

Thus it will be seen from Mr. Porritt's interesting survey that some very important measures were carried through the Canadian Parliament during the comparatively brief session of three months in the spring and early summer of 1897.

RECENT ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL LEGISLATION.

IN the *Yale Review* for August Mr. Frederic J. Stimson reviews the recent economic and social legislation of the different States. More than half of the annual and biennial laws of the States for 1897 have now been published, and Mr. Stimson bases his *résumé* upon these published statutes. In his opinion the most important law and the most far-reaching in its consequences, if it is allowed to stand, is the celebrated contempt statute of Kansas, which practically wipes out all the peculiar force of the chancery jurisdiction and will in fact put a stop to what has become known as "government by injunction" in conflicts between corporations and their employees. This law derives still greater importance from the fact, pointed out by Mr. Stimson, that it concludes with a provision that it shall apply to all proceedings for contempt in all courts of Kansas. Now the ordinary rule of procedure in United States courts is that it must conform to the legal procedure of the State courts, in form at least, and so it would seem that this Kansas law attempts to destroy the equity jurisdiction of the Federal courts when sitting in the State of Kansas. It remains to be seen whether these courts will submit to such a nullification of their equity powers.

Mr. Stimson calls attention to the movement in Western States for the adoption of hours-of-labor laws to protect child labor. During 1897 such laws have been passed in Missouri, Illinois, and Indiana.

California and Kansas now have monthly-payment laws applying to corporations only, with a provision against "company stores."

Kansas, Indiana, Illinois, Alabama, Washington, and North Carolina have adopted general laws for the regulation of mines.

THE WAR ON THE "TRUSTS."

Mr. Stimson reviews several of the various "drag-net" statutes against trusts and "combinations" which have been especially numerous during the past year. He cites particularly the new and elaborate general act of Kansas which defines a trust to be a combination of capital, skill, or acts where two or more persons, firms, corporations, or associations combine for either of the following purposes:

"(1) To create or carry out restrictions in trade or commerce, or in the full and free pursuit of any business; (2) to increase or reduce the price of merchandise or the rates of insurance; (3) to prevent competition in the manufacture, transportation, sale, or purchase of merchandise, or to prevent competition in aids to commerce;

(4) to fix any price or limit of output; (5) to carry out any contract, etc., to sell or not to sell, to transport or not to transport, any article below or above a certain price or charge, or to pool or unite interests in any way. All such combinations are declared unlawful and void, and persons or officers of corporations taking part in them subject to fine and imprisonment, while any person injured by such trust may recover his actual damages."

Mr. Stimson summarizes other pieces of Kansas legislation of this nature which he thinks fairly open to the suspicion of unconstitutionality.

The California law regulating the sale of franchises is particularly interesting. This law provides that in future the franchises of telegraph or telephone companies, street railroads, gas, water, electric power or light companies must be sold at auction for a stated per cent. of the gross annual receipts, not less than 3 per cent. No percentage need be paid for the first five years, but the period of the franchise appears to be left to local authorities to determine.

"The populist State of Washington has provided that every contract, loan, bond, or mortgage may be paid and fully satisfied by and with any kind of lawful money or currency of the United States, and that any provision requiring payment in any particular kind of money shall be void—a clear negation of the right of free contract. The same State has farther provided that in all future proceedings for the foreclosure of mortgages, the lender shall be limited to his remedy as against the property and may not pursue the borrower on his note."

A curious amendment to the South Carolina liquor law declares that all alcoholic liquors found in the State that have not been made by the State distilleries are "of a detrimental character"—presumably, as Mr. Stimson suggests, detrimental to the stomachs of the South Carolina citizens—and may be seized without a warrant wherever found.

Mr. Stimson quotes many other eccentricities of American State legislation which we lack the space to reproduce. He says that he has gone over the laws of some twenty States for the year 1897, and among them all has found only two in which no new legislation worthy of special mention has been enacted. Oddly enough, these two are Massachusetts, the source of so much of what has been considered model legislation in years past, and the Territory of Arizona. The case of Massachusetts is partly explained by the fact that the governor in his inaugural message took strong ground against the excessive legislation which had characterized that commonwealth in recent years, and this probably had its effect.

THE COAL-STRIKE INJUNCTIONS.

IN the *American*, of Philadelphia, for August 21, the editor, Mr. Wharton Barker, gives vigorous utterance to sentiments which are beginning to find expression in many quarters regarding the injunctions issued by the Federal courts in West Virginia to prevent agitation by the striking coal miners.

While a reading of these enjoining orders fails to show that any attempt has been made to enjoin Mr. Debs "off the face of the earth," as he at first maintained, it still remains true that very serious limitations are placed on the personal liberty of the strikers and their sympathizers, and against the general policy of such injunctions so conservative an authority as Mr. F. J. Stimson has given warning more than once.

Many people, the *American's* editor among them, contend that it is not at all the business of the courts to execute the laws, but rather to interpret them. At any rate, the conception of judicial functions which has been introduced in this country since the great railroad strike of 1894 is somewhat different from the old conception.

Mr. Wharton Barker asserts that the West Virginia injunctions "restrain the strikers in doing that which in no way trespasses on the rights of miners willing to work, and which they have a perfect right to do." That is to say, the strikers are enjoined from inducing the working miners to quit work. As Mr. Barker puts it, they are "prevented from presenting any reasons to those miners at work, and willing to continue to work, such as would induce them to quit work."

THE EFFECT OF THE COURT'S ORDERS.

"For the strikers to visit the working miners, to talk with them and endeavor to show them that by continuing to work they are jeopardizing the success of the strike, and that in the event of the strike failing they will be ground down to farther poverty, that by continuing work they are sacrificing the future for temporary gain, is certainly not trespassing on the rights of such working miners. On the contrary, to deny to the working miners the opportunity to listen to the advice of the strikers and act on that advice, if after they hear the arguments presented they should deem it to their profit to do so, is to trespass on their rights. And of this trespass the courts are guilty, and they are guilty of the

farther trespass on the rights of the strikers whom they have virtually enjoined from making efforts to extend the strike and make it a success.

THE RULE SHOULD WORK BOTH WAYS.

"Thus we have the courts not only usurping executive functions, but usurping such functions to the end of strengthening the hands of the operators and weakening the hands of the miners, restraining the strikers who have not trespassed on the rights of any one, and becoming trespassers themselves. They have held that the operators have a right to induce men to take the places of the strikers, which is right, but they have denied the equal right of the strikers to induce such men to quit work and join the strike, which is wrong. To protect the operator in the enjoyment of his right to induce men to take the places of the strikers while restraining the strikers from inducing such men to quit work is a grievous injustice. It is giving aid to the operator to fill the places of the strikers, crush the strike, and force the strikers back into worse conditions than ever, while denying to the strikers the right to protect themselves. It is an avowal of that monarchical principle that the weak have no rights the powerful are bound to respect, of those principles of modern oligarchy that the rights of property are superior to the rights of man, that men have no rights that capital must respect, that the interests of capital are to be conserved at the expense of the interests of the industrial classes.

"Such avowal on the part of our courts, such trespassing on the rights of labor at the dictation of centralized capital, we cannot afford to let pass unrebuked, for continuance along such a path means the degradation of our industrial classes, the overthrow of democratic government, and the enthronement of an oligarchy of wealth. The courts have undertaken to restrain the liberties of our people, have passed beyond their legitimate functions, and have undertaken to run the Government in the interest of the few, ignoring the rights of the many; but the time will surely come when the people will assert their paramount authority, restrain the courts that have undertaken to restrain their liberties, and make it known that the only authority the courts possess is derived from the people, and that such authority is conferred for the protection of our whole people, not the protection of the few and the oppression of the many."



THE PERIODICALS REVIEWED.

HARPER'S.

IN the September *Harper's* Capt. A. T. Mahan takes "A Twentieth Century Outlook," and anticipates the opportunities for conflict which the great outward tendency of the European peoples and the ultimate meeting of the East and West will invite. This future meeting of alien civilization he foresees and the inevitable clash leads Captain Mahan into a plea for the profession of arms, as follows:

"Let us worship peace, indeed, as the goal at which humanity must hope to arrive; but let us not fancy that peace is to be had as a boy wrenches an unripe fruit from a tree. Nor will peace be reached by ignoring the conditions that confront us or by exaggerating the charms of quiet, of prosperity, of ease, and by contrasting these exclusively with the alarms and horrors of war. Merely utilitarian arguments have never convinced nor converted mankind, and they never will; for mankind knows that there is something better. Its homage will never be commanded by peace, presented as the tutelary deity of the stock market.

"Nothing is more ominous for the future of our race than that tendency, vociferous at present, which refuses to recognize in the profession of arms, in war, that something which inspired Wordsworth's 'Happy Warrior,' which soothed the dying hours of Henry Lawrence, who framed the ideals of his career on the poet's conception and so nobly illustrated it in his self-sacrifice; that something which has made the soldier to all ages the type of heroism and of self-denial. When the religion of Christ, of him who was led as a lamb to the slaughter, seeks to raise before its followers the image of self-control and of resistance to evil, it is the soldier whom it presents. He himself, if by office King of Peace, is first of all, in the essence of his Being King of Righteousness, without which true peace cannot be.

"Conflict is the condition of all life, material and spiritual; and it is to the soldier's experience that the spiritual life goes for its most vivid metaphors and its loftiest inspirations. Whatever else the twentieth century may bring us, it will not, from anything now current in the thought of the nineteenth, receive a nobler ideal."

Mr. Henry James has an appreciation of George du Maurier covering a good many more pages than magazines are generally willing to accord to subjects other than fiction, but not a line more than one would wish. Mr. Henry James is, of course, no very quotable critic in the sense of summing up his opinion of Du Maurier or of *Tribby* in any particular paragraph. He loves to "analyze and linger." Mr. James does say that the first of Du Maurier's contributions, "Peter Ibbetson," remains his most particular pleasure. "For it seems to me to conform to that idea of an author's best, of which the sign is ever his having most expressed his subject."

One of the most delightful, though very unassuming, magazine features that we have seen for some time is Mr. Frederick Remington's account of "The Great Medicine Horse," an Indian myth of the thunder, told in the delicious mixture of slang spoken by one of Mr. Remington's half-breed Canadian Indian friends. Not that the story would be much or the myth so unusual were it not for Mr. Remington's pictures. The three—one of them the frontispiece of the magazine—which

accompany his little story offer the very best type of American art in dramatic force and verity.

THE CENTURY.

THE September *Century* publishes the final installment of the diary of E. J. Glave, which is chiefly occupied in giving instances of cruelty in the Congo Free State, through which Glave traveled. Mr. Glave describes the killing and cutting up of several hippopotami. He said he killed at least six on one occasion in the shallow waters of the river. All of them sank and afterward two of them came up. He had slits made in the skin and the beasts drawn up on the bank, and there was a perfect riot among the natives to get part of the flesh, so rarely do they get a feed of meat. Mr. Glave says that the sale of alcohol leads to the great degradation and degeneration of the African races. Any amount of fiery gin is sold for half a franc per bottle. A communication to the department of "Open Letters" contains an interesting letter from Mr. Glave, commending the administration of the Belgians, and also gives an account of the explorer's death and burial.

Mr. Harry Furniss is felicitous in both the text and illustrations of a contribution which he calls "Glimpses of Gladstone." He says that Mr. Gladstone always appeared very anxious and restless before rising to make a speech, and that another of his peculiar habits is that of turning around and addressing members behind him. When he became excited and wished to drive an argument home he used to emphasize by bringing down his ringed hand on a box in front of him with such force that there are many historical dents remaining. Mr. Gladstone is famous for keeping his own counsel, and always advised young members to do likewise. Mr. Furniss says that Gladstone labored under a great disadvantage in addressing public meetings out of doors, because his style was too refined to appeal to the theatrical tastes of a popular audience.

The *Century* opens with an excellent paper by Baron Pierre de Coubertin, entitled "Royalists and Republicans," in which the baron gives very readable comments on members of the Orléans family, President Carnot, and Mr. Taine.

SCRIBNER'S.

ONE of the best out-of-door articles we have seen for some time is Mr. Frederick Irland's, in the September *Scribner's*, "To the Shores of the Mingan Seignior," in which the writer gives an account from the sportsman's point of view of an almost unknown country, the salmon pools and trout streams of virgin excellence and plenty, the trout from twenty to thirty inches in length, and the salmon the noblest specimens of that noble race. Mr. Irland makes this stirring picture of a salmon pool in this untrammelled land:

"The first fall on the Mingan is about three miles from the mouth. It is forty-six feet high, in three pitches about equal in height and with seething pools between. The spawning beds of the salmon are on

broad, gravelly bars far up the river. They must surmount this fall once a year in order to reach them. We camped on a sand-bar below the fall and watched the struggle. The broad pool below the fall was so full of these royal fish that their tails and dorsal fins could constantly be seen sticking out of the water. Every minute one or more fish would make a rush from the depths below, spring far into the air, every fiber quivering, and time after time fall back, only the most powerful and determined occasionally succeeding in passing the first pitch. Above that, every nook and crevice in the rocks where the salmon could obtain a resting-place was crowded. Great monsters they were, weighing from twenty-five to forty pounds. How they ever made the second and third pitches I do not know, for there was not the good starting chance that they had in the deep hole below the first pitch."

After all, the most picturesque feature of this article is the photograph of a salmon in midair, leaping a fifteen-foot fall. The marvelous instinct which drives these creatures to seek the head of the stream impels them to attempt the most impossible feats in the way of leaping, feats which have long been the wonder of piscatorial observers. It is strange to see a fish caught in the act so clearly and accurately with a snapshot camera.

Mr. F. Hopkinson Smith makes "Some Notes on Tennessee's Centennial," and contributes some pictures in his fetching style to make the article more vivid. Mr. Smith's recognition of the achievements and reality of the new South are tinged with a sadness over the *régime* which it is supplanting. He says: "There may be something in this new South of which we hear so much. There may be material wealth and enlarged opportunities for labor and education, and there may be increased bank accounts laid away in the vaults of modern marble banks. But I know all the same that with its coming there will fade from American civilization the last of the wood-fire and old mahogany life, the colonial life—the most restful, the most wholesome, the most simple—found nowhere now but in our small Southern cities—a life which once extinguished will never be revived."

The department called "The Field of Art" tells this month about traveling scholarships open to American painters, sculptors, and architects. Mr. Rinehart, the sculptor, left a sum which, under the skillful care of the late W. T. Walters, of Baltimore, reached the figure of \$100,000, and which provides now for two scholarships for sculptors, the beneficiaries of each to receive \$1,000 a year for four years, a passage to and from Rome, and a studio and lodging in the Villa dell' Aurora, where they must live and work. There are four architectural traveling scholarships in the market, the oldest one founded in 1883 by the children of a wealthy merchant of Boston, Mr. B. S. Rotch. This furnishes an annual income of \$2,000 and is placed in the hands of three trustees, who have turned over the general direction to the care of the Boston Society of Architects. There are yearly examinations, and the successful candidate receives \$1,000 annually for two years. All competitors must be under thirty years of age and have worked two years under an architect resident in Massachusetts, and there are other detailed conditions of the competition. Then there are the three traveling scholarships and the Columbia and McKim fellowships, and that of the University of Pennsylvania, each of them connected with the school of architecture.

THE COSMOPOLITAN.

FROM the September *Cosmopolitan* we have selected President E. Benjamin Andrews' essay on "Two New Educational Ideals" to review among the "Leading Articles."

The magazine begins this month with an extended illustrated account of the manufacturing methods of the *Cosmopolitan* at Irvington-on-Hudson, by Mr. John Brisben Walker, who has built a complete plant in a beautiful country for the sole purpose of making the magazine.

Mr. Julian Hawthorne continues the series of articles on "The Real India," which have been quoted from extensively in the two previous issues of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, and the report of the scenes in her majesty's Eastern empire make a rarely vivid and true picture of that far-away and plague-stricken land. Mr. Hawthorne draws a very beautiful picture of the home of an Indian missionary which he visited in India, a household devoted to good works and sufficient in itself to throw a cloak of incredulity over the stories one so often hears of the luxury and idleness and impracticability of the Indian missionaries. For Mr. Hawthorne is no mawkish writer or gushing sentimentalist. He is nothing if not real and sturdy. Speaking of this good missionary, he says:

"His lovely, artless, human, holy wife, with faith like a little child's, and innocent as a child, yet wise and steadfast in all that touched her work, labored as untiringly and selflessly as her husband; and so did the other angel in the house. There were, perhaps, a hundred native children, either orphaned or deserted, who had begun to get flesh on their bones, and were busy and happy in learning to read and write their native language and in singing hymns of praise to the new living God who loves children, meeting morning and evening in the chapel for that purpose, and to listen to stories about this God's loving dealings with his creatures, told by native Christian teachers and by the missionary himself. They also learned, for the first time in their lives, what it was to live in clean and orderly rooms, and to be fed abundantly and regularly, and to be treated with steady, intelligent, and unselfish affection. These children would have died of the famine had not the mission found and saved them."

This missionary had a number of villages covering a hundred or more square miles under his special care, and he makes the round of these about every fortnight. Mr. Hawthorne gives a terrible picture of the destitution and sufferings of the famine-stricken people of whom millions upon millions are to be found all over India. Indeed, there are hundreds of towns not even blessed with a Good Samaritan of a missionary, and to which white men never come at all. "If I could bring those people there to New York," said Mr. Hawthorne, "and could put them down in Madison Square just as they are for New Yorkers to see, I would engage to have money enough in twenty-four hours to save a million lives."

Robert Oglesby gives an account of a six months' trip through the Yukon gold-fields, which furnishes a very good idea of the country and of the life in the regions which now boast of Dawson City. Of the life in that country under the arctic circle, Mr. Oglesby says: "There is no administration of civil law in the interior of Alaska; miners' law prevails. Whether the title to a valuable gold claim is in question or partition pro-

ceedings are in order over a row-boat the course is the same—a miners' meeting is called and the case is discussed and settled. An excellent state of law and order has resulted. Murder has not been committed along the river for years," certainly a very astonishing result. Of the community known as Forty Mile Creek, where the Alaska Commercial Company have their trading post and storehouses and where there is a community numbering some two hundred log cabins, Mr. Oglesby says:

"The houses are low and square, made from logs with the bark left on, the cracks being chinked with moss. The roof is made of poles or slabs and covered with moss, and on top of many cabins wild flowers can be seen growing during the summer. They are easily heated, however, with the small sheet-iron stoves universally used by the miners—an important consideration in a climate where the thermometer sometimes indicates eighty degrees below zero.

"The only amusements during the dark season are drinking and gambling, and there are numerous saloons, where bad whisky is sold for fifty cents a drink and cards for one dollar a pack. There is also a bakery, where a loaf of bread costs twenty-five cents and a pie fifty cents. The price for a shave is the same as for a pie.

"The Mission of the Established Church of England, built near here some years since, has lost much of its influence since the arrival of white men and whisky."

Ouida contributes to this number of the *Cosmopolitan* an essay "On the Art of Dress," which is characteristic of the brilliant authoress. She makes her well-known protest against the fashions of both men and women in this day, and says that the only really beautiful form of dress which is our own invention, and which is at once modern, yet artistic, and has close affinity to the Greek, is the tea-gown, which has in it many of the best graces of the Greek robe, with a brilliancy and adaptability all its own. It is hard to tell which Ouida hates most earnestly—the *décolleté* dress of the beauty in an opera box or the trouser fashion of the masculine world. Among our manly costumes she finds scarcely anything to commend, with the possible exception of the blouse in France and the Tyrolean costumes. The blouse is, she says, "the ideal dress for the workingman, and only wants to be completed by some leg gear better than the trouser. I have seen the blouse made in dove-colored velvet for a man of rank, with belt and buttons of antique silver, worn with admirable effect. The especial excellence of the blouse is that it lends itself to the movements of the wearer without strain or pressure upon him."

MCCLURE'S.

THE September *McClure's* contains an article by Col. George E. Waring, Jr., on "The Cleaning of a Great City," another by J. F. Steffens on "Life in the Klondyke Gold-Fields," and F. J. Kenyon's inquiry, "When Were the Gospels Written?" which we have quoted from among the "Leading Articles of the Month."

Aside from these three contributions the number is given over to fiction and poetry. In the most notable example of the latter Mr. Rudyard Kipling shows that he has not lost the cunning that we found so fetching in the first "Barrack Room Ballads." "Pharaoh and the Sergeant" is as haunting and as charming as anything Mr.

Kipling has done in the way of hitting off the British soldier. Robert Barr has a short story called "A Man Fights Best in His Own Township," John J. a'Becket calls his story "Badness," and farther chapters of Stevenson's "St. Ives" are published. "The Martyrdom of 'Mealy' Jones" gives us another of William Allen White's delicious boy stories.

Henry Clay is the subject of the life portraits of the month, and eight or ten excellent reproductions are given of famous paintings and models of Mr. Clay.

MUNSEY'S.

MUNSEY'S MAGAZINE for September shows quite an advance in the literary standard of the fiction. Hall Caine's novel, "The Christian," is drawing to a close, Mr. F. Marion Crawford's serial "Corleone" contributes chapters, there is a clever story of British Indian life by Flora Annie Steel, and in an allied field Paul Bourget writes on "My Favorite Novelist and His Best Book." Bourget, as one might have anticipated, puts the literary wreath for supremacy in fiction on the head of Balzac, and considers "Cousin Pons" to be the greatest work of the immortal "Comédie Humaine." Bourget says that he read his first Balzac at fifteen—rather a tender age, one would think, for such strong artistic meat.

There is also in this number of *Munsey's* an authoritative article by William C. De Witt, the chairman of the committee which drafted the Greater New York charter, entitled "Molding the New Metropolis." The REVIEW OF REVIEWS has had much information, chiefly in the editorial departments, on the problem presented by the Greater New York consolidation, and we will only quote Mr. De Witt's decided views in regard to the mayoralty:

"I am for a czar mayor, with a short term, and a free right to go again to the people. I fully appreciate the objections successfully urged in the commission to so powerful an officer. I acknowledge there would be danger to the independence of the departments, and that an ambitious mayor, with such power, might convert all the vast machinery of the government to the uses of his party or himself. There is a loss, too, in point of efficiency on the mayor's part from a short term, whereby he might go out of office at the very time when he was most competent for the discharge of his duties; but in my judgment these dangers and evils are of no considerable weight against the advantages arising from the centralization of all responsibility for maladministration in one man, who must, either in person or through his party, go to the people every two years. I believe that the Supreme Ruler of the Universe moves through the minds of the multitude, and in this age of free schools and ubiquitous journalism, no mayor with plenary power and full responsibility would dare to permit corruption or inefficiency to exist in any department. If he did, the people would have only one head to hit and one party to demolish."

Among the excellently clear portraits of public men that appear in the September *Munsey's* is one of Oliver Wendell Holmes, the son of the Autocrat. A short biographical note tells us that Judge Holmes is regarded as one of the foremost jurists of Massachusetts. He is a much larger man, physically, than his father, and has the same charm of manner among his friends, and is one of the most dignified justices on the bench. Judge Holmes is now fifty-seven, but does not look it

by more than ten years. He had a most distinguished war experience and was a successful practitioner and legal author when Governor Long, now Secretary of the Navy, appointed him to the Massachusetts Supreme Court bench.

LIPPINCOTT'S.

MR. JOHN L. WRIGHT contributes to the September *Lippincott's* an article on "The Chicago Drainage Channel," which he calls the greatest feat of sanitary engineering in the world. The completion of the great drainage channel, which has cost \$27,000,000, will soon be attained. The huge canal was, according to the law, to be constructed from Chicago southward to Lockport, a distance of 28 miles, where it would meet the Desplaines River. Through this channel the entire volume of sewage of the city was to flow into the Desplaines, thence into the Illinois River, which the Desplaines meets just below Joliet, and by the Illinois through the State into the Mississippi at Alton, Ill. The channel was to be 160 feet wide, 18 feet deep where it was cut through the rocks, and 14 through the drift. The channel will, however, be about 37 miles in length when completed. Mr. Wright gives many statistics of gigantic dimensions, and describes some of the machines that have come into existence purely to fill the demands of this Herculean enterprise.

Theodore Stanton tells something of "Europe and the Exposition of 1900," and gives an account of the participation of the respective European countries in the great show at Paris. Belgium, Russia, Sweden, Norway, Servia, Austria-Hungary, Italy, Great Britain, Holland, Denmark, Germany, and several South American and Asiatic countries are going to be officially represented. Mr. Stanton says: "If we of the United States let many more months slip by without taking any action, our would-be exhibitors of the eleventh hour will not only find all the 'best places' given away, but will be chagrined to learn, as has been our experience at more than one former exhibition, that they cannot find even 'standing room.' What a cry will then go up—the old cry that was heard in 1867, 1878, and 1889—against the future United States Commission; whereas the blame should be laid at the door of Congress and American public opinion, which has slumbered over this question of our participation in 1900, while all Europe and most of the rest of the civilized world are up and doing."

NEW ENGLAND MAGAZINE.

THE *New England Magazine* has an article on "Greek Letter Societies in American Colleges," by Eugene H. L. Randolph, which gives a very good historical account of the various societies of the United States, from the forming of the Phi Beta Kappa in the College of William and Mary in 1776. The real beginning, however, of the Greek-letter society as we know it to-day was in the organization of Kappa Alpha at Union College in 1825. It was conceived by five members of the class of 1826, who wished to found a new society for social and literary purposes which should be secret. The secret societies met with a great deal of opposition from the college authorities at first, but they were so popular with the students that they succeeded and spread abroad. Within two years two similar societies, Delta Phi and Sigma Phi, had been founded at

Union, and these three contained the germs of the vast system existing to-day.

Amelia L. Hill makes a pleasant article on "Travel in Early New England" from the journal of Madam Sarah Knight, which describes a journey on horseback from Boston to New York in 1704. It is curious that the route taken by Madam Knight was so closely the same as the route followed now by the big railroad lines, except that she went somewhat farther south in the eastern part of her journey, through Providence. At that time the traveler was forced to get a casual oarsman and be rowed over any river that he or she came to. The writer tells of a baker of Portsmouth who used to walk sixty-six miles in one day to buy his flour, ship it on a coaster, and then return on foot the next day.

THE LADIES' HOME JOURNAL.

THE *Ladies' Home Journal* for September has a much-illustrated article called "What a Woman Can Do With a Camera," in which Frances Benjamin Johnston enumerates the necessary apparatus for an amateur photographer, as follows: For outdoor and indoor work, a 6½ by 8½ or an 8 by 10 inch camera, light in weight, compact and simple in construction, a light but rigid tripod, and a few extra plate holders. For a plate 8 by 10 inches have two lenses of the rapid symmetrical form, the first about 15 inches in focal length, for architectural and general outdoor work, also for portraits, groups, copying, etc. A second lens of about 10-inch focus is of great use in confined situations. Both lenses should be equipped with combination time and instantaneous shutter. A wide-angle lens of about 6-inch focus for interiors is also necessary. All of these, the best and new, would cost about \$300, but there are bargains to be found in second-hand photographic apparatus, especially in lenses. Of course such an elaborate outfit is meant by the adviser for those who mean to make some commercial use of their photography.

Clifford Howard gives some picturesque information under the title "Destroying a Million Dollars a Day." It is an account of the mint's disposition of soiled and torn money which has been presented to the United States Treasury to be redeemed. These soiled bills do not often come from individuals, but are taken to the banks to be deposited or exchanged for clean notes. The banks forward the old money to Washington. The old bills are destroyed by a process known as maceration. Through an opening in the floor the money is thrown into a large revolving cylinder, containing steam, soda ash, and other chemicals, which rapidly disintegrate the paper and convert it into a soft pulp. This pulp is then rolled between cylinders and pressed into sheets which, when thoroughly dry, resemble thick pieces of white pasteboard. Each year the Government invites bids to buy this refuse, and it is sold during the year to the person offering the highest price for it. Forty dollars a ton is about the average price paid for this material which, a short time before, in another form, was worth over \$3,000,000 a ton.

THE BOOKMAN.

THE September *Bookman* says editorially of Jean Ingelow, who died a few weeks ago, that she "became famous with her first book of verses almost at a bound. In 1863 Messrs. Roberts Brothers issued a first edition of twenty-five thousand copies, and alto-

gether they have sold since then upward of one hundred and fifty thousand copies of her books in this country. This does not include the numerous editions published at various times by other American firms. Her songs became familiar in every household; lyrical and dramatic, graceful and fluent, she possessed that happy combination of the domestic and religious qualities which carried her popularity beyond the critics' ban into the heart of that enigmatical person, the general reader. Her high-water mark was reached in 'High Tide on the Coast of Lincolnshir,' which of all her poems will perhaps be longest remembered. Born in the Boston of old England, she lived all her days in quietness and seclusion, welcoming a few literary friends during her recent years at her little house and garden in Kensington. She was old-fashioned and prim in her ways, as in her dress, and although the singer of 'Wedlock,' she died in her seventy-seventh year an old maid. She always wrote for a high purpose and never had any care or thought for fame."

Major Pond made a "good thing" out of the "Ian Maclaren" lectures. The *Bookman* says the net profits were forty thousand dollars. The major is now trying to persuade Hall Caine to lecture through the United States, but Mr. Caine hesitates on account of the physical fatigue of the undertaking.

The contributed articles are "Relics of Emily Brontë," by Clement K. Shorter, and "Some Humorists" in the series of "American Bookmen."

THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

MAURICE THOMPSON has a brief article in the September *Chautauquan* on "Common Sense on the Wheel." He is a stout advocate of wheeling for women, but he warns against over-exercise, as "women are more apt than men to suffer organic lesion of one kind or another from too great physical exertion, and their hurts are more difficult to cure." Mr. Thompson says that the saying, heard so often nowadays, that athletes are short-lived is only true of abnormally developed athletes. "The true athlete, man or woman, is not over-developed or unevenly developed. Brain, heart, lungs, muscles are equally and correlatively sound and active. . . . The value of bicycling as an outdoor exercise does not lie in its tendency to make amazons of women and gladiator-like animals of men. The mind as well as the body must feel the recreation and gather in from air, sunlight, sights, and sounds the elements of perfect growth."

Florence Kelly says in her article on "Women and Girls in Sweat-Shops" that the prevailing cheapness of ready-made clothing is not due to the utilization of the ill-paid labor of women and children in tenements and tenement shops, but is attained in spite of this sweating system. The reduction of price has been forced by machinery and the division of labor. So we need not have bad consciences in this matter when we make a good bargain at the clothing store.

CASSIER'S MAGAZINE.

"ENCYCLOPÆDIC" is not an unfit term to apply to the contents of the special marine number (August) of *Cassier's Magazine*. The three hundred pages of text and illustration which make up the magazine are printed on heavy, coated paper, and this single number is equivalent in bulk to a bound volume

of respectable proportions. Between the covers there are seventeen signed articles on topics connected with the various departments of marine engineering, each prepared by an expert and fully illustrated with half-tone cuts.

In the group of articles devoted to naval equipment with reference to a war footing, Sir William Henry White, of the British Navy, writes on "Specialties of Warship Design," Sir Charles W. Dilke on "The Naval Weakness of Great Britain," A. F. Yarrow on "Fast Torpedo Boats," Walter M. McFarland, United States Navy, on "Water Tube Boilers for War Vessels," and F. Meriam Wheeler on "The Auxiliary Machinery of an American Warship."

Henry H. West and Archibald Denny contribute articles on steamship design, there are three articles on lake and river steamboat-building, and the subject of marine-engine construction is elaborately treated. The concluding paper is by John P. Holland, and discusses the possibilities and actual achievements of submarine navigation.

THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

WE have quoted from three articles in the September *Atlantic Monthly*: "Municipal Administration: The New York Police Force," by Hon. Theodore Roosevelt; "Are the Rich Growing Richer and the Poor Poorer?" by Hon. Carroll D. Wright, and "A New Organization for the New Navy," by Mr. Ira M. Hollis.

This number of the *Atlantic* is exceedingly valuable, for besides these opening articles, which are unusually authoritative and important, the number is enriched by an essay in Prof. Woodrow Wilson's best style, "On Being Human." Professor Wilson argues for a breadth and catholicity of view, the "soundness of nature, this broad and genial quality which gives the men we love that wide-eyed sympathy, which gives hope and power to humanity, which gives range to every good quality and is so excellent a credential of genuine manhood." But to quote from such a pleasantly philosophical discussion is rather Philistine.

No less charming is Prof. Basil L. Gildersleeve in his comparison of the war between the States with the Peloponnesian War, light and discursive, but enriched with the wit and learning and felicitous allusion of our most eminent Grecian.

Still another essayist who contributes to this number is Mr. Henry Childs Merwin, who discusses "The American Notion of Equality." Mr. Merwin agrees with Mr. Howells in his protest that "our great crime is that we have been false to the notion of equality," and thinks that the great hindrance is the ever-increasing inequality of the distribution of wealth. He would not mind plutocracy if it exerted a good influence, but Mr. Merwin thinks it exerts a bad influence. The lives of the very rich "are spent, for the most part, in the pursuit of material pleasures, and they foster low ambitions in the public at large. What standards, what ideals, must be instilled in the mind of a young girl, the daughter of a mechanic, for instance, who reads the 'society' news in the Sunday papers and contemplates the 'best' people in the city as she sees them in the street, and perhaps at the theater or in church now and then! She must learn to think that the highest ambition of a young woman is not to be gentle, to be modest, to give pleasure to those around, and especially to those be-

neath her, but to be a conspicuous object at the horse show, to wear costly garments, to take part in costly entertainments, and finally to marry a foreign nobleman and forsake her own country forever."

In the department of "Men and Letters" there is a pleasant sketch of Mrs. Oliphant by Harriet Waters Preston. Mrs. Oliphant's life was so secluded and so dignified that she was never brought into the glare of publicity as are most successful writers. Miss Preston tells us that the novelist worked constantly under the pressure of a tyrannous if not sordid necessity, but above all with indomitable spirit and untiring pains. Her life was a sad one, for she saw in 1894 the death of her last surviving son, and was left alone to confront the specter of incurable disease.

THE ARENA.

MORE than half of the September *Arena* is given up to six articles on important social and economic topics. The first paper in this group is the introductory portion of a discussion of the concentration of wealth, by Herman E. Taubeneck, who holds our monetary legislation responsible for this concentration.

Mr. David Overmyer replies at some length to an article by Senator Hill on the future of the Democratic party in the *Forum* of last February. Mr. Overmyer makes an able presentation of the principles held by the Bryan Democracy of the West and South.

Mr. Eltwed Pomeroy offers an elaborate plea for "The Multiple Standard for Money." This is not a new conception in economic science by any means. Indeed, Mr. Pomeroy is able to quote a Massachusetts law of 1780 which embodied essentially the same principles for which he now contends. The legal-tender note issued under this law, of which the *Arena* prints a reduced facsimile, reads as follows:

"In behalf of the State of Massachusetts-Bay, I the subscriber do hereby promise and oblige Myself and Successors in the Office of Treasurer of said State, to pay unto ——— or his order, the sum of ——— on or before the First Day of March, in the Year of our Lord One Thousand Seven Hundred and ———, with interest at Six per Cent per annum: Both Principal and Interest to be paid in the then current Money of said State, in a greater or less Sum, according as Five Bushels of Corn, Sixty-eight Pounds and four-sevenths Parts of a Pound of Beef, Ten Pounds of Sheep's Wool, and Sixteen Pounds of Sole Leather shall then cost, more or less than One Hundred and Thirty Pounds current Money, at the then current Prices of said Articles," etc., etc.

In an article entitled "Anticipating the Unearned Increment," Mr. I. W. Hart advocates municipal site-ownership, especially for all new cities. This scheme should have been tried in the West years ago. It is too late now, in most cases.

Mr. Laurence Gronlund, author of "The Coöperative Commonwealth," contributes the first of a series of "Studies in Ultimate Society." Mr. Gronlund's paper is chiefly an exposition of the ethical basis of collectivism. Mr. K. T. Takabashi, on the other hand, makes a vigorous defense of individualism, characterizing altruism as a "positive hypocrisy."

There is some relief in turning from these severely philosophical discussions to the more concrete matters which are treated in the latter pages of the *Arena*. Crittenden Marriott describes General Weyler's campaign in Cuba. Conceding all that General Weyler

claims to have accomplished, where, asks this writer, does Spain stand to-day? According to her own reports the rebels are now in a better position than the one they occupied at the beginning of the ten years' war of 1868-78.

"That war was confined to the two eastern provinces of Puerto Principe and Santiago de Cuba, and never penetrated the west at all. Yet it lasted ten years and was ended only by a treaty making promises which were broken before its ink was dry. Even Weyler does not claim to have pacified these two eastern provinces yet, although, according to his interpretation of the term, he might just as well do so. But, as a matter of fact, the war in the west is not over yet. On the contrary, there are more rebels under arms there than ever before. They avoid battle whenever possible, ambush the Spanish columns at long range, and retreat to the hills on the least effort at pursuit—not a noble form of warfare, but an effective one nevertheless. Whenever the Spanish evacuate a spot the rebels swarm into it. Pinar del Rio, which has been pacified for five months, requires thirty thousand troops to keep the rebels bottled up in the hills and prevent their doing mischief. The other two western provinces are as bad. In Santa Clara, the central province, Maximo Gomez is still camped where he has been for months, and his subordinate generals are all around him. If Spain can keep up her present army and her present operations for ten years longer she may win, otherwise the triumph of the rebellion is certain."

Mr. B. O. Flower contributes a biographical sketch of Handel, the composer.

Dr. John Clark Ridpath, the *Arena's* editor, addresses an open letter to President Andrews on the Brown University trouble and the principles involved.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

WE have quoted elsewhere from Mr. Mulhall's statistical record of the progress of the Middle West in the *North American* for August.

The second installment of General Grant's letters to his friend Washburne is chiefly remarkable for the few references made therein to the Presidential campaign of 1880. Writing from Cuba in February of that year, Grant says he is not a candidate for the nomination. "In confidence I will tell you I should feel sorry if it should be —. Blaine I would like to see elected, but I fear the party could not elect him. He would create enthusiasm, but he would have opposition in some Northern States that the Republicans should carry."

Edmund Gosse, overcome by the prevailing tendency in England in this jubilee year to take account of stock, reviews the past ten years of English literature, with a rather disappointing conclusion:

"Without a suspicion of sarcasm, I merely record that the ten years since 1887 seem to me to have been marked in England, so far as literature is concerned, by an extraordinary removal of the great traditional figures which gave their tone to thought; by an excessive and unwieldy preponderance of one class of book—and that the class least amenable to criticism—namely, the novel; and by a growth of combined athleticism and commercialism highly unfavorable to art and letters."

The Hon. Henry C. Ide reopens the Samoan treaty question by showing the importance of the rights secured by the United States in Samoa and the value of our expenditures there.

In a rather inopportune article on the Federal civil service, Gen. Green B. Raum advocates amendments to the rules which would have just the opposite effect to those recently promulgated by President McKinley. In other words, he would return to the spoils system.

Comptroller Eckels, writing on "The Menace of Legislation," says:

"The seriousness of the situation wrought by over-legislation is many-sided. It has made statutory enactment, notwithstanding prohibitory provisions in the Constitution of a majority of the States against special legislation, distinctively special legislation. If in many instances it appears to be general in its object and scope, it is so in appearance only. The thing to be accomplished is wholly individual and for individual benefit. The legislative bodies of the country and the legislators themselves have suffered in reputation and standing from their zeal in this direction."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Prof. Abram S. Isaacs writes on the future of Judaism; Admiral Colomb, of the British Navy, outlines "The Progress of British Warships' Design;" Dr. A. H. Doty, Health Officer of the Port of New York, discusses "Quarantine Methods;" Mr. E. T. Hargrove offers an exposition of "Theosophy and Ethics;" Mr. A. R. Smith advocates the Lubin proposition for an export bounty on agricultural products, and Mr. M. W. Hazeltine submits a pointed criticism of a recent article by Speaker Reed on the business methods of the House of Representatives.

THE FORUM.

FROM the *Forum* for August we have selected Senator Hoar's discussion of "Statesmanship in England and the United States" and Chief Pokagon's article on "The Future of the Red Man" for quotation in our department of "Leading Articles."

"A Plea for the Army," by General Howard, opens the number. This article is largely devoted to an appeal for improved coast defenses and other measures of preparation for war. "Look before you leap" is General Howard's motto. On the subject of a possible war with Spain he says:

"Our most aggressive writers and public speakers contend that they have no fear of war with Spain, because we are so much bigger and stronger and because of Spain's apparent exhaustion. In the end we should conquer, without doubt. But I beg rash thinkers to consider the primary dangers. They are plain enough to all foreign navies that are watching us, viz., our extensive coast and our coast trade; the exposed shipping, cities, and villages; the ability of Spain to issue the inevitable letters-of-marque to all sorts of vessels plowing the ocean. Our navy, good as it is, cannot be everywhere at the same time. Spain on her coasts has small return to offer in the way of reprisal; so that the first great danger and loss would necessarily fall to our side. Perhaps the fright would be worse for our people than the actual losses. Let not the causers and makers of war, however, be too confident!"

General Howard shows that Spain now has under arms more than 400,000 soldiers. To meet this force we have 28,238 regulars—officers and men, and a National Guard of 112,879, many of whom would not be available outside their own States. Our immediate resort would be to a large force of volunteers.

Dr. Lyman Abbott writes on "The Growth of Religious Tolerance in the United States." Dr. Abbott's view of the situation is decidedly optimistic:

"We are beginning to perceive that truth is infinite and the individual mind finite; and we are less satisfied with our own partialism and less dissatisfied with the partial view of our neighbor. We are beginning to distrust the negations in our own creeds and to wonder if there is not some truth in our neighbor's affirmations. The Armenian believes more than he used to do in divine sovereignty, and the Calvinist more in human freedom; the Baptist more in the family as the unit of all social organization, and the Pedobaptist more in the right of the individual to choose his own form of faith for himself; the Catholic believes more in the authority of the individual conscience as the final court of appeal, and the Independent more in the Church of Christ as the corrector of the idiosyncrasies of the individual."

The *Forum* presents two important educational articles in this number. President C. F. Thwing reviews the progress of American scholarship for the sixty years that have passed since Emerson's famous Phi Beta Kappa address (August, 1837). President Thwing frankly confesses that America has not the scholarship of Germany nor the rich culture of Oxford and Cambridge. He does, however, look for great results in the years to come.

Dr. Friederich Paulsen sets forth the educational ideal of this day as follows:

"Popular, not exclusive or aristocratic in the narrower sense of the word; national, not foreign or international, but rather the result of an evolution from the national life itself; realistic, characterized by strength and action and not by mere thought and æsthetic sentiment; individualistic, i.e., aiming at the development of the individual and not at the establishment of dull uniformity; not democratic, therefore, if this word imply a general reduction to a dead level, but rather aristocratic, in the sense of an individual, not a class, aristocracy."

It is difficult indeed to say anything new about the much-praised municipal government of Berlin. Prof. Frank W. Blackmar finds nothing to censure to the city's administration. Berlin, in his view, has all the conditions of earthly happiness:

"Some think it is too much governed; but so long as the well-being of all the people is sought and maintained, so long as thrift, economy, and a perfect system of administration are maintained, how can there be too much government? Can people do too much for themselves if everything is excellently done?"

OTHER ARTICLES.

Senator White, of California, writes in opposition to Hawaiian annexation; Prof. E. Washburn Hopkins contributes an article on the "Political Aspects of the Plague in Bombay," and Commander Booth-Tucker describes the "farm-colonies" scheme of the Salvation Army.

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW.

IN the *Fortnightly* for August Mrs. Virginia Crawford has an article on Maurice Maeterläck. It is a study of the Flemish dramatist and mystic written not only with lucidity, which has always characterized her writing, but with a glow and an insight which have not

before been conspicuously displayed in her contributions to the periodical press. It is an article which it is impossible to summarize.

CYCLING ON THE CONTINENT.

Mr. and Mrs. Pennell write a bright article summarizing the results of their experience of twenty years of cycling. The Pennells were the pioneers of cycling on the continent. They have gone through the experience of being mobbed from curiosity in nearly every town in Central Europe. Their article is full of "pointers" for those who contemplate tours on the continent. They are very strong in condemnation of English inns, reserving their chief anathemas for Devonshire and Cornwall, the inhabitants of which are evidently regarded by them as standing lowest in the scale of civilization in all Europe. To judge from their article, Devonshire and Cornwall are much more savage countries than the wildest regions of Eastern Europe. Their roads are horrible, their food is detestable, and the manners of the people are those of barbarians. The following passage embodies much good sense:

"The ideal journey, in France for example, would be to train to the center of the country—the majority of continental railroads do not charge for cycles—and start off with the wind behind you and change your direction with it; whether any one ever had the sense to do this we do not know. But it might be borne in mind that in Europe, save in the Rhone Valley, the prevalent winds blow from the south. It is well, too, on a long tour, especially on the continent, to study what physical geographers call 'the lay of the land'—that is, plan your tour so that you may have the hills with you and not against you; follow the longest river valleys down and not up. A push of one day up a mountain—and you can even hire a trap to carry your machine or take a train; we are not above such aids—is better than a monotonous grind for two or three days on a gradual slope. Stop when you get tired; travel by rail when it is too hard work. There is no glory to be got from hard work in cycling. You might as well amuse yourself."

SOME ILLUSIONS ABOUT THE ARMADA.

Maj. Martin Hume, in an article on "The Defeat of the Armada," declares that the public labors under gross delusions as to the overwhelming strength of the Spanish Armada.

"The Armada as it left Corunna was not, as most English historians have told us, immensely stronger than the English fleet. Materially, the fleets were not as unequal as they have been represented. It has already been remarked that the Spanish ships looked much the larger because of their immense castles and upper works, but this was a distinct disadvantage except at close quarters."

He does not think that the Spaniards, when they reached the channel, had more than 62 ships of over 300 tons, while the English had 49 of over 200 tons. The Spanish had a few more fighting men, but the English ships had the advantage of being less cumbered with soldiers, and they had heavier armament and artillery. The Spanish flagship, for instance, only threw a broadside weighing 200 pounds, while the broadside on the English ship was 340 pounds. Major Hume says:

"At the time the Armada left Corunna, both Philip and his commanders were perfectly aware that the chances were against them. They knew (a) that the English ships were swifter and stronger, and that the English sailors were more skillful than theirs; (b) that

their guns were heavier and better served; (c) that the English tactics, as usual, would be to avoid close quarters, and to cripple the foe at a distance, which the handiness of their craft would enable them to do; (d) that the whole success of the enterprise depended upon absolutely calm weather and fair wind allowing Parma to come out and cross, after the straits had been cleared of enemies; (e) that the arrival of the Armada at all depended upon a favorable wind; and (f) that in case of any delay or reverse it would be exposed, with unwieldy ships and inexpert or unfaithful pilots, on a dangerous shoally coast, without any available port of refuge. Only by a combination of favorable circumstances not to be looked for could success by any possibility attend it."

MRS. OLIPHANT.

Mrs. Harry Coghill pays a tribute to Mrs. Oliphant, who was certainly one of the most prolific and industrious of most modern writers. Mrs. Coghill says:

"She had labored in almost every field of literature, winning every kind of success, and never, in all the fifty years (except perhaps for one moment in the early days of her widowhood), making a real failure. One day in the last week of her life she said, 'Many times I have come to a corner which I could see no way round, but each time a way has been found for me.' There have been, perhaps there are (and she would have been the first to say it with full belief), greater novelists, but who has ever achieved the same variety of literary work with anything like the same level of excellence? A great deal of her very best remains at present anonymous—biographical and critical papers, and others dealing with an extraordinary variety of subjects. But merely to divide her books into classes gives some little idea of the range of her powers. Her novels, long and short, can hardly number much less than a hundred, but these for a long time back were by no means her works of predilection; they were necessary pot-boilers, and in the three last sad years all fiction had been heavy labor to her."

EMILE DE GIRARDIN.

Mr. Vandam contributes a paper on the French writer, Emile de Girardin, whom he styles "the king of the journalists."

"It is no small thing to have the title of 'king of the journalists' bestowed upon one's self during one's life, to have the justness of this title admitted by some of the most eminent members of one's own craft, and to retain the title undisputedly after death. Yet this is unquestionably the case in this instance. No honest assailant of French journalism, whether fundamentally hostile to, critically indulgent of, or thoroughly sympathetic with Girardin's political programme, can afford to ignore his claim to one of the foremost niches in that gallery of men whose names have become household words among the educated of both hemispheres. 'The power of a paper is not due to the talent of its writers, but to the influence of its subscribers,' said Girardin, and he was right. So well was this policy observed that not only all of the writers on *La Presse*, remarkable to a man, but their director himself, were accessible to the humblest of the public."

A writer on "The Present Agitation in India and the Vernacular Press" inclines to an alarmist view of the situation in that part of Britain's imperial domain, where there has been plenty of "jubilee" loyalty, but not a little underhand sedition.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

THE *Nineteenth Century* for August contains a number of capital articles; that on the return of the Jews to Palestine is noticed elsewhere.

The Earl of Mayo contributes a charming article entitled "The Tourist in Ireland." Lord Mayo in this article personally conducts the reader from one end of Ireland to the other, in order to tempt more of his fellow-countrymen to see for themselves the beauties of the sister isle. He says that in this article his chief object is "to show those seeking for a new place where to spend a holiday that we Irishmen have improved our inns, hotels, and means of communication."

Not only have the hotels improved, but the Irish Tourist Association has been formed for the purpose of keeping everybody up to the mark. Lord Mayo says:

"When one has been badly treated at an inn either in respect of high prices, bad attendance, or dirty apartments, the Irish Tourist Association will put the matter before the Irish Hotel and Restaurant Keepers' Association, and it will then be remedied. Both these bodies are respected and carry weight in Ireland. Being myself a vice-president of the Tourist Association and very often presiding at our council meetings during the winter, such complaints would have my earnest consideration."

THE SLAVERY OF THE CHILD.

Mrs. Hogg, in an article entitled "School Children as Wage Earners," describes the result of an elaborate inquiry made by the Committee of the Women's Industrial Council into the earnings of school children. After careful investigation of the cases of 16,000 boys and 10,000 girls attending 54 schools, they have ascertained that 5 per cent., or about 700 boys and girls, are working for wages besides going to school. She thus summarizes her conclusions drawn from the facts thus brought to light:

"(1) That there are grievous cases of overwork among these children; (2) that the overwork does make it impossible to obtain the best educational results; (3) that it is sometimes extremely demoralizing; (4) that the economic value of the work done is too small to be taken into account; (5) that farther regulation of the employment of school children not under the factory laws is desirable; (6) that the whole matter ought to be seriously taken up and thoroughly examined into officially, with a view to obtaining a completeness and accuracy of information necessarily out of reach of any unofficial council or association."

THE POSITION OF FOREIGNERS IN JAPAN.

Robert Young, writing on the case of the foreign residents in Japan, makes the following suggestion as to the change that ought to be made in the new treaty regulating the status of foreign residents:

"But, granting a real desire on the part of Japan to give foreigners a fair return for the privileges surrendered—and to suggest anything else would be to doubt the *bona fides* of Japanese assurances throughout the negotiations—there is yet time to repair the omissions and defects in both the important matters to which attention has been directed. A protocol could be drawn up providing safeguards on the lines suggested above in the matter of the imprisonment of foreigners; and at the same time the assent of the Japanese Government could be secured to the insertion of a definite term—say

fifty years—for which leases between Japanese and foreigners would be recognized. If these amendments could be effected, the bulk of the opposition of British subjects to the new treaties would, I believe, disappear, and the British Government would not only render a real service to its subjects in Japan, but would at the same time avoid many serious complications to which the treaties as they now stand will be certain to give rise when they come into operation."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. E. Vincent Heward indulges in a retrospect of Elizabethan rejoicing as a parallel and a contrast to those of the recent jubilee. Dr. Jessopp in a few characteristic pages pleads for the preservation of moles, the extermination of which has led to a disastrous plague of beetles. The Rev. Thomas Stebbing discourses about crabs and their kinsfolk in an article on the "Curiosities About Crustacea," and Mr. Warrender writes enthusiastically concerning tarpon-fishing in Florida.

THE CONTEMPORARY REVIEW.

THE *Contemporary Review* for August is a good number. We notice elsewhere Dr. James' article on the "New Sayings of Christ."

Professor Ramsey writes an article on what to do in the East. He cordially supports Patrick Geddes' paper as to the attention that ought to be paid to the material improvement of the people. He contends that the thing to be done is to treat Turkey as a derelict farm, capable of immense development if it were only properly taken in hand by agriculturists rather than by diplomatists. He says:

"Agricultural education is an urgent need, and here is an opening whereby Britain can do something to repair the mischief that has been wrought in the Turkish lands during recent years. An agricultural training college established in Cyprus would prove an incalculable boon to the East, if conducted on sensible lines and not on the principle of despising all operations except those that are on a gigantic scale. What we have to do, what alone is worth doing, is to stimulate into activity the dormant vitality of the population."

HOW THE COLONIAL MARKET IS SPOILED.

Mr. G. Lacy Hillier, writing on the British cycle market and the present state of depression which prevails therein, incidentally calls attention to the damage that has been done to the cycle trade in the colonies by shipping out bad machines. He says:

"Anything in the shape of a cycle is thought good enough for the colonies by some cycle traders. Cases have come under my notice in which inferior goods have been sent there—machines without distinctive numbers, apparently experimentally constructed—which should never have passed the factory gate except for trial by trusted hands. The whole thing was illustratively summed up in a letter from an Australian town, in which the writer said that the only two cycles that ever reached it which were up to the standard he had been accustomed to at home were ordered from a prominent firm through a shipping agent for export to—Chicago! After receipt the address was changed, and these were the best machines ever seen in that part of Australia."

LAND BANKS FOR INDIA.

Professor Ghosh writes three pages on rural land banks as a remedy for Indian famines. He says:

"It is proposed to open a bank in every large village in India, *primarily* with the object of constituting a savings bank for its people, and of enabling them to *obtain loans of small sums in cases of temporary difficulties*—though, in the event of a successful result, its operations may be gradually extended to other financial purposes. That such a scheme will produce the most beneficial results is obvious. For it will free the peasantry of India from the clutches of their money-lenders, who are at least one of the causes of their poverty; it will inspire a greater confidence in the minds of the people in the benevolence of their government, a confidence which in their opinion is often put to too severe test, and it will actually give them a stake in the permanence of that government which they do not possess at present."

THE LATE BARNEY BARNATO.

Mr. Harry Raymond contributes some account of Mr. Barnato, with whom he seems to have been on terms of intimate friendship. Mr. Raymond says:

"His early education in the Aldgate Jewish Free School was most elementary; and there for his life his book-learning ended. He never read books, and only occasionally skimmed newspapers. Speaking of the South African papers, he said he knew all he wanted to know before the papers were published, and as for books, 'It is cheaper for me to pay a man to pick out what I want than to waste time myself in looking for it.' For art he cared nothing, and his only criticism of pictures was from the story-telling point of view."

Here is Mr. Barnato's philosophy of life as summarized by him in conversation with Mr. Raymond:

"If you are going to fight," he said, "always get in first blow. If a man is going to hit you, hit him first and say, 'If you try that I'll hit you again.' It is no use your standing off and saying, 'If you hit me I'll hit you back.' D'ye understand?" "Yes, I understand," I answered; "but you are quoting Kingsley in 'Westward Ho!'" "Who was Kingsley and 'Westward Ho!'" he sharply queried. After I had explained and quoted the passage from Drake's letter to Amyas Leigh, he said, "Ah! I did not know anything of Kingsley, but when he wrote that he knew what life was and he was right and I am right, though it is queer for me to get a supporter in one of your parsons. If he was a true man he would also have to agree with our law of 'an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth,' but being a Christian of course he couldn't do that. Pah! never let a man wrong you without getting square, no matter how long you wait, and never wrong a man if you can help it, because he will wait his time to get back on you and at the worst possible moment. I don't care whether it is Jew or Gentile, it is all the same."

Mr. Raymond gives several interesting particulars as to the way in which Mr. Barnato made his fortune. He seems to have had an extraordinary capacity for mastering every detail of every business that he handled, and he speedily acquired a position which made him virtually master of the South African market.

Mr. Michael G. Mulhall writes on "Twenty Years of Trade," describing by statistics the remarkable commercial prosperity which England has enjoyed for two decades past. Lillian Town details the agitation for the referendum in Australia and New Zealand.

THE EDINBURGH REVIEW.

THE *Edinburgh Review* for July contains the usual amount of good solid reading which we expect to find in this dignified quarterly.

The first article is devoted to a careful and well-informed survey of the present political position in Italy. The writer evidently thinks there is very little prosperity and a great deal too much politics in the Italian kingdom. He strongly inclines to a policy of retrenchment, especially in military expenditure, but this has been negated by the new minister of war, who has been sustained in his refusal by the Chamber:

"And so seems to have vanished, for the present at least, all hope of real military retrenchment. In vain may ministers strain their ears to hear the voice of discontent. Funds may rise and financiers may flourish again, but Italian industry, Italian land, and Italian peasants remain the most heavily burdened in the world."

But there is some excuse for the Chamber when we find the *Edinburgh* reviewer telling us that of all departments of the public service, the army is the only one which is a credit to the kingdom:

"The tone and behavior of the soldier of every degree in Italy is superior to that of any other class in the country. There is an admirable feeling between private and officer. The mill of discipline and the instruction given in the army schools do wonders for the intelligence, general handiness, self-reliance, and self-respect of the peasants who pass through them. To the general cry of lamentation which Signor Villari heard all over Sicily, ministers, deputies, prefects, syndics, communal and provincial councils, Senate and Chamber being overwhelmed in the same flood of abuse, he notes one striking exception. In spite of popular risings having been suppressed by the troops, in spite of the ring-leaders having been tried by military courts and sentenced to heavy penalties, no one had a word to say against the army. It had always done its duty without partisanship or favoritism."

THE NATIVE STATES OF INDIA.

The writer of this article explains somewhat carefully what the native States are and what part they play in the government of India. The gist of what he has to say is expressed in the following paragraph:

"The six hundred and eighty-eight so-called native sovereignties, in spite of their vast aggregate area and population, are neither a danger nor a menace to the empire. On the contrary, they are friendly and too imitative. The great majority of them, the petty ones, cannot be said to have retained any appreciable individuality beyond what there is in British India, and even the more important ones, perhaps owing to excessive 'protection,' run the risk of losing it to a regrettable degree. This is a pity if the empire is strengthened and not weakened by free growth in different directions, by diversity of views and interests, by conservatism as well as progress, by the links which natives possessing a large stake in the country form between us and the foreign masses we rule, by the existence of an influential class of men who are neither merchants nor clerks."

SIR GEORGE AIREY, ASTRONOMER ROYAL.

In an article entitled "Two Recent Astronomers," we have an appreciative sketch of the life and work of two widely dissimilar men; Sir George Airey, Astronomer

Royal, and Mr. J. C. Adams, the mathematician, who anticipated Leverrier in the discovery of the unknown planet whose influence deflected the movements of Uranus. Sir George Airey seems to have been a man of inexhaustible energy. The reviewer says:

"It is true that he originated little and discovered nothing. 'Scientific imagination' had been denied to him—had been denied so completely that he never suspected the deficiency."

But if he had no imagination, he had almost supernatural powers of application:

"Few men have used their powers so fitly and so entirely. They were turned to the fullest account, yet commanded with Hellenic sobriety. His great faculties were not allowed to ride rough-shod over his life. Work and recreation alternated in strictly regulated proportions. The massiveness of his performance almost baffles comprehension. It implies an extraordinary quickness and agility of mental action. His literary productiveness alone was astonishing. The papers, great and small, published by him, number five hundred and eighteen. The list does not include his separately published books."

THE ORIGINS OF PRIMITIVE RELIGION.

This article is based on Miss Kingsley's travels, Mr. Jevons' "Introduction to the History of Religion," and Prof. Max Müller's "Contributions to the Science of Mythology." The reviewer is very cautious in his observations and comes to the non-committal conclusion that "all that can be done, for the most part, is to apprehend clearly the general course and character of prehistoric religion, to mark its outlines and prominent features, to catch its tone and color, and so to preserve some true impression of social and intellectual states through which the foremost nations of the world have passed, and which still survive among many races for whose welfare the British people are directly responsible."

OTHER ARTICLES.

Among the other articles in the *Review*, we have the inevitable but somewhat belated review of Captain Mahan's "Life of Nelson." An historical paper describes the earlier career of the great Duke of Brunswick, whose ill-fated invasion of France let loose the revolutionary tide which submerged Europe. There is a review of the recent books which have appeared on "Mountaineering in the Alps of Europe and of New Zealand," and Mr. Freshfield's book on the "Exploration of the Caucasus." Another paper is devoted to a discussion of instinct in the animal and vegetable kingdoms.

THE QUARTERLY REVIEW.

THE July number of the *Quarterly Review* contains several excellent essays. We can mention only three or four of them.

In an article entitled "Asia Minor Rediscovered," a *Quarterly* reviewer suggests that all that is wanted to secure the unearthing of the immense treasure in the shape of buried antiquities that exists in Asia Minor is the adoption of the Cyprus law on the subject:

"A modification of the Turkish law such as obtains in Cyprus would, we believe, satisfy every one and lead to an active exploration of Asia Minor. According to the law there, the government claims one-third of the antiquities discovered, another third belongs to the

owner of the soil, the remaining third to the excavator, who, however, usually acquires the owner's rights before he begins, and thus becomes entitled to two-thirds. A government inspector, whom the excavator has to pay, watches the proceedings and takes notes of the finds. One result is that the Museum of Nicosia, the chief town of the island, now contains a very fair representation of the various classes of antiquities which have been found since the English occupation, including indeed several objects of unique interest."

OTHER ARTICLES.

There is a fine, thoughtful paper on "Job and the 'Faust,'" written from the point of view of one who endeavors in all things to see affinities between philosophic skeptics and Christian believers. The bridge by which mortals passed from the seen to the unknown universe, according to Goethe, is repentance and the inner process of religious regeneration. He finds in "Faust" a gallant attempt to reconcile science with faith, culture with religion, practical views of life with the principles of Christian eschatology, which culminates in the idea which is fast becoming the ruling idea of the most thoughtful men of our day, that science and faith are not intended to exclude, but to form the complement of each other. There is a pleasant, gossip account of Banff in a review of Dr. Cramond's "Annals of Banff," which was published in 1893.

THE NEW REVIEW.

THE frontispiece of the *New Review* for August is a colored portrait of Lord Roberts, by Mr. W. Nicholson.

Mr. James Fitzmaurice Kelly, author of the article on Peter the Great, is a vigorous writer. He describes Peter the Great as "hard, dissolute, drunken, brutal, with the manners of a gorilla, the heart of a tiger, and the morals of a he-goat."

Mr. Kelly keeps it up for a dozen pages, each of which is full of matter incisive, brutal perhaps, but all packed with power. No such portrait of Peter the Great has ever appeared before in the English language, but after sketching this demonic monster he explains:

"Who shall deny that Peter knew how to govern the Russian people, or that he was an imperial demagogue of the first magnitude, using vulgarity and excess as means of government? Himself a *moujik* of genius, he captured the people's sympathy as the incarnation of the sausage-seller on the throne. He was that; and he was more. What he accomplished might well have taken three hundred years; and he took but twenty! He redeemed his people by his sole endeavor. He was a ruffian, no doubt; but a supremely great one. His work endures and—one must repeat it—alone he did it."

THE DECLINE OF WOMAN.

Mr. Frederick Boyle, in an article under this head, calls attention to the fact that it is too often ignored by the conceited moderns that women occupied a much higher status in the earlier ages of the world than they do at present, even in the most advanced communities. Women received more honor in the dawn of Greek and Norse civilization than they did afterward. The Vedas show that woman had equality in religious exercises, but her position was higher in the earliest civilization, those of Acadia four thousand years before Christ and the Egyptian. Professor Sayce points out that in Acadia

the wife ranked before the husband in all matters relating to the family, and in their books it is always women and men, not men and women. It was even prescribed that if a husband ill-treated his wife, so that she denied him conjugal rights, "in the river they should place him." Mr. Boyle laments the disappearance of the Acadian standard. Everywhere to-day throughout the savage world woman is more or less of a slave. How it came about that she fell from the high estate which she enjoyed six thousand years ago is buried in mystery.

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Henry Rew criticises Mr. William's "Foreigner in the Farmyard." Mr. Whibley describes Lucian as "An Ancient Critic," and a British civil servant writes on the "Organization of the Home Civil Service."

THE NATIONAL REVIEW.

IN another department we have reviewed Mr. Blake's article on "Golden Rhodesia" and Admiral Colomb's "Future of Naval Warfare," from the *National Review* for August. Mrs. Alfred Lyttelton writes a sequel to Gibbon's love-letters, which tell the story of the relations which subsequently existed between Gibbon and Madame Necker.

An anonymous British official sets forth a plan for arranging an understanding between Russia and Great Britain:

"What Russia has been aiming at all along is not, I think, the occupation of Constantinople so much as control over the sultan, so that no other power may gain advantages in Turkey in Europe, and a free passage for her ships of war through the Dardanelles. I should be inclined to give her a perfectly free hand in Turkey in Europe, and I would ask her to stop the trouble in Armenia as well. She would not, I believe, make any effort to annex another foot of territory, but would be quite content to have us out of the way and the Turk under her thumb. All the nations of Europe, Germany included, have such large commercial relations with Constantinople that Russia could not occupy the place without drawing on herself the anger of them all—perhaps of France. We might even stipulate that she should not."

After explaining an elaborate scheme for the conciliation of Russia in Asia, this writer says:

"If we do not come to some such arrangement as that I have endeavored to roughly sketch, Russia will soon perhaps reach the frontiers of India, and push down to the Persian Gulf as well, and then we shall each have to maintain bloated and costly armaments, both sides of the frontier will be seething with intrigue, uncertainty and restlessness will prevail, and it must all end in a very big fight. Russia does not want this to happen; she fears us every bit as much as we fear her. We are both terribly afraid of each other, and therein lies the danger."

THE USES OF HUMOR.

Professor Sully, writing on "The Uses of Humor," says:

"I am disposed to think that the surest preservative against a weak truckling to convention, a hypocritical hiding of our true self in order to curry favor with contemporaries, is a lively unslumbering sense of the drolleries of things. The same genial impulse of laughter which arms us against the excesses of self-assertion will

most effectually aid us also in a proper maintenance of our individual integrity. It not merely gives a pleasant seasoning to the dish of life; it is its conservative salt. It carries on in our later sadder days the sweet refreshing offices of childish laughter. It is at once the outcome and the sustainer of a healthy vitality, of that attitude of quiet readiness which sentinels the wise man's life."

IN PRAISE OF THE PRIZE RING.

Major Broadfoot, who wrote "The Life of Sayers" for the "Dictionary of National Biography," discourses concerning pugilism. He says:

"The discipline of the ring has first regard to the relative powers of the combatants; they should be fairly equal, no weapons save nature's should be used, and no unfair advantage should be taken. When a man is knocked down his antagonist's assault ceases and the combat is renewed on equal terms. This is more than just—it is generous beyond the practice of any other country, ancient or modern. Self-restraint even when under excitement is enforced, and all foul practices are abhorrent to fair boxing. To talk, therefore, of the brutality of boxing is to talk ignorantly and without sense. Training for boxing, including obedience to the rules of the ring, modifies and minimizes what is brutal in fighting. It unquestionably teaches and enforces self-restraint, and plants successfully in soil not always the most promising the seeds of chivalry. The support given to glove contests seems to dispose of the assertion that the younger generation is indifferent to the glories of the ring; their taste has been developed to suit the exigencies of the present day; the sport is fundamentally the same as of old, but the manner of conducting it has altered."

BLACKWOOD'S MAGAZINE.

ONE of the most readable of the British magazines for August is *Blackwood's*. This number contains two noteworthy articles on the Greek war. Both writers comment rather favorably on the courage of the Greeks. Major Callwell, of the Royal Artillery, who was present at several engagements, admits the "administrative collapse" of the Greek forces, but thinks the officers have been unjustly censured for some of their movements. The war, in his view, could have had but one result. Of the naval operations he says:

"Seventy years ago a navy, suddenly improvised on the outbreak of the war of liberation, had triumphed time after time over the Ottoman fleets, and had enabled the patriot bands for years to keep at bay the hosts of a sultan far more powerful than Abdul Hamid. The Greeks did not recognize that the strategical conditions had undergone a transformation. They do not recognize even now that their maritime forces have played a prominent part in the campaign just ended. The idea, absurd as it is, seems really to have existed in many quarters that their little squadron ought to have braved the batteries which sweep the approaches to the port of Salonica, or to have done something in the Dardanelles. In reality, the Hellenic navy performed the only duty which it could be called upon to do. It commanded the Ægean and Ionian seas. For descents upon the hostile shores on a sufficient scale to achieve any solid gain there were no men available. Maritime power could not be exerted otherwise than passively. In fact, only the most unpardonable mismanagement on the part of the Ottoman generals could have pre-

vented their victory in a theater of war like Thessaly, considering the numerical superiority which they had at their disposal. No perfection of military organization on the part of Greece, no exercise of Greek sea-power, could under the conditions of the case have appreciably affected the result at the decisive point."

Mr. Walter B. Harris writes a scathing condemnation of the Athenian populace:

"They have not suffered as a whole, and their immunity renders them callous to the sufferings of others. Frantic at first with the war-fever, they have done but little either for the army, the wounded, or the refugees."

THE INDIAN ARMY.

An article on "The Native Army of India" estimates the strength of the armed forces in that country as follows:

"There were in India at the close of the year 1856, 38,000 British and 348,000 native troops of all arms, the former having 276 field-guns, the latter 248. The present strength of the same forces is, roughly, 73,000 British, with 88 batteries of artillery of six guns each, and 148,000 natives, with 12 batteries of mountain artillery: to these should be added 17,000 imperial-service troops, with 2 batteries of mountain artillery, making a total of 165,000 native troops and 14 batteries."

FACES AND PLACES.

Dr. Louis Robinson contributes a study on the effect of places on faces. He tells a strange story of the way men about a great meat market assume the butcher type of face, even the telegraph clerks conforming to the dominant type. He leans to the conclusion that the country and climate are the decisive factors. The European-American shows signs of conforming to the ancient Indian type, and the New Zealand settler to the Maori type. Dr. Robinson remarks on the ugly prospect this tendency holds out to colonists in Australia.

AN EARLY EPIC OF TENNYSON.

Prof. William Knight tells the following story in his "Reminiscences of Tennyson:"

"As we walked to and fro on the lawn under the shade of the cedars, sheltered by the 'groves of pine' (to which he refers in his poem addressed to Maurice), he told me—without the slightest touch of vanity—that when he was between thirteen and fourteen years of age he wrote an epic of several thousand lines. His father was proud of it, and said he thought 'the author would yet be one of the great in English literature' (good prophet of the future, thought I); 'but,' he added, 'I burned it when I read the earliest poems of Shelley.'"

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. J. Y. Simpson continues his description of Siberian prisons, and gives striking instances of great liberty granted to the gravest political criminals. "In its best features eminently worthy of imitation," but still too arbitrary, is his verdict on the system generally.

A writer on "Italian Journalism as Seen in Fiction" gives a most somber account of the present condition of the press in Italy.

"Early Victorian Traveling" is the subject of an interesting study.

An article summing up the work of the recent session of the British Parliament enumerates the two education bills and the bill for the compensation of workmen for accidents as the most important measures discussed.

CORNHILL.

THE August number has many good articles, readable and entertaining, but few of the first rank of importance.

The anniversary study is concerned with the battle of Minden, which the Rev. W. H. Fitchett, editor of the *Australasian Review of Reviews*, describes with characteristic color and *verve*. In this battle the French lost 8,000 men, and their whole campaign in Germany was wrecked. A supreme proof was afforded of the fighting quality of the British private.

Mr. George Paston maintains that whatever arts we of the nineteenth century may have lost, we have one of the first importance—of "the dignity of a tenth muse"—the art of pen portraiture. The earlier poets had been largely conventional or general; the new school began with Landor. The greatest English prose portrait-painter is declared to be George Meredith. Thomas Hardy runs him close. But "to Tennyson, greater as a word-painter than as a poet, the art owes more than to any other modern singer."

The famous trial told afresh by Mr. J. B. Atlay is that of Burke, of the Burke-and-Hare notoriety. Mr. A. I. Shand depicts Lord Alvanley, a wit of the Regency, and Rev. John Vaughan recounts the checkered story of the French prisoners at Portchester.

THE NEW CENTURY.

THE *New Century Review* contains a brief symposium on "The Royal Academy: Its Functions and its Relation to Art," in which several writers take part, of whom the most conspicuous is Walter Crane. His brief paper suggests that the Arts and Crafts Exhibition Society is destined to succeed the Academy, as it has asserted a new principle in art exhibition. A real national institution should embrace all forms of design. Nor does he think that the holding of large annual picture shows is a proper or desirable work for an academy to undertake. Under present conditions the huge picture shows are somewhat barbarous both in conception and treatment, and certainly fatiguing. If there is to be a really representative national show of art every year, there should be a public building large enough to offer space to any artist or group of artists, where they could place their work before the public impartially. Mr. A. W. Hutton continues his survey of "The Present Position of the Vaccination Question." Mr. H. H. D'Egville pleads for "A Closer Union Within the Empire." The Rev. Samuel Holmes explains how Liberal High Church theology has developed of late years, while Mr. C. J. Mead Allen, on "Novelist vs. Reviewer," puts in a plea for the reviewer, whose assailants he says are chiefly authors who have failed. He admits, however, that there exists a small body of egotists, mostly very young men adorned by an indulgent university with a very superficial education, who treat criticism as nothing but a series of pegs on which to hang cheap witticisms, pointless epigrams, and borrowed paradoxes. They are not numerous and their work is of no interest to any one but themselves. Mr. Stanley Little, continuing his papers on "The Enemies of South Africa," deals chiefly with the native question. Mr. Little thinks Mr. Chamberlain did badly in giving back the Transvaal to the Boers, but that he has done much better than might have been expected since he came back to office.

COSMOPOLIS.

THE August number of *Cosmopolis* reaches a high standard of interest, alike in the English, French, and German sections.

In the German section Ola Hansson gives a charming account of a posthumous work by the late M. Taine, which contains the notes he made while traveling from place to place as government inspector of schools in 1864. The notes reveal his passionate love of nature and his keen judgment of his own countrymen. The first is illustrated by some delightful pen-landscapes; of the second a few examples may be given. A society is like a garden which may be made to grow oranges and pears or cabbages and carrots. French society is exclusively designed to produce cabbages and carrots! The comfort of the lower middle class—for that France exists. Nothing has roots of its own: everything, from barracks to university, is new, artificial, like a false tooth. The life of the provinces is the life of animals in hibernation. He bewails the political subordination of the Southern, semi-Italian, and more creative half of France to the cold, methodic North. He is more and more convinced of the flatness of the French democracy, the very air of which is fatal to the whole man, the great man. His ideal is England or the ancient States. In France he sees only two parties—the Clericals and the Liberals. The priests are the true rulers of the provinces, and have been, whatever the nominal government may be. One remarkable fact he mentions is the superiority of the Clerical to the State schools, a superiority attributed to the fatherly and motherly affection shown to their charges by the monks and nuns.

THE RUSSIAN SPIRIT INCARNATE.

The charm of Russian literature is beautifully described by Lou Andréas-Salomé. Western literature, *blasé* and decadent, craves for the freshness and mystic-

ally deep childlikeness of the Slavonic race, while its own sadness delights in Slav sensitiveness and melancholy. This sweet *naïveté* of the Russian mind has its drawbacks; formlessness, unsatisfying, negligent technique is the almost invariable fault in Russian works. In Tolstoi the several traits of the national character are blended so as to form one colossal figure. Tolstoi's personality is everything. Its power lifts the artlessness of Russian fiction into genius. It reaches down to the roots of all personality. The last stadium of his life has become one long effort to rob death of his sting—a Titan struggle, eye to eye and breast to breast. Nothing brings him nearer modern humanity than his constant sense of death in life. So Russian literature personified in Tolstoi stands valiant and undismayed facing the eternal mystery. W. R. Morfill, in the English section, sums up the progress of Russia during the year by saying she has done the best work in history, poetry, and travel, the age of great novelists having ceased

OTHER ARTICLES.

Mr. Frederick Greenwood writes with brilliancy on Mr. Morley's "Machiavelli," and argues in favor of the Machiavellian patriot as against the Machiavellian egotist. Statesmen have to do firstly with forces as forces, and little with their morality. The exigencies of State-life may become like the exigencies of war, in which morality is suspended. Mr. T. H. S. Escott discourses on the turf as an international factor, and pronounces London, New York, and Paris, for turf purposes, sections of the same community. The Rev. W. J. Scott waxes joyful over the prospect of mile-a-minute trains coming into vogue. He admits that the best American schedule time is now as far ahead of the best English as ten years ago it was behind it. Mr. Scott has evidently made a diligent study of American railroad time-tables, and he has learned something to his advantage.

THE FRENCH AND ITALIAN REVIEWS.

NOUVELLE REVUE.

IN the first July number the Duchess of Fitz-James continues her reminiscences of 1848. These slight notes, though they have but little historical value, are brightly written, and are amusing, in spite of the paucity of anecdote in them.

General Dragomirof contributes both to the first and second July numbers papers on Napoleon and Wellington, which really consist of semi-military criticisms of the notes of Proudhon found in his unpublished papers. In these notes we see Courtois painting for us Bonaparte as a little, ugly, yellow, flat-haired, dirty man, without anything to recommend him except his impudence, and speaking with an Italian accent so strong as to be barely intelligible. Even in 1815 he had not yet learned to speak French; in his family he always spoke Italian. Proudhon finds it strange that Napoleon had so firm a conviction of his own invincibility, whereas, in General Dragomirof's opinion, this conviction of success is the sole cause of military glory.

M. Denais continues his interesting articles on fanaticism in Turkey. He begins as far back as he can, at the year 711, when the Mahomedans conquered Spain, and he brings forward enough historical details to establish in the mind of every candid person that in the past, at any rate, the Mahomedans have been not only toler-

ant, but also cultivated, enlightened, and chivalrous. Whether this eulogy will be any consolation to the Armenians in the nineteenth century M. Denais must decide. He certainly explains with considerable impressiveness the action of the sultan in arousing what we must call the latent fanaticism of Islam. M. Denais' theory is that it is the sultan who is thoroughly bad, and that in his demoniacal wiliness he plays upon the prejudices of his people to serve his own base ends. It was really in obedience to his orders that the idea was spread among the Turks that there was an Anglo-Armenian alliance, bent upon upsetting the dynasty of Osman and of uprooting the religion of Islam. The Armenian massacres were the answer of the Turkish people to this alliance, which existed only in the imagination of the sultan. In conclusion, M. Denais claims that these crimes committed against the Armenians are not the natural result of fanaticism, but are the artificial product of the despotic constitution of Turkey.

M. Limousin has a curious article on the kabbala of the West. The kabbala is, or was, an occult science, the key to other occult sciences. According to the writer, *kabbala*, or rather *qubalah*, is a Hebrew word signifying "tradition;" but what has gradually come to be known as "kabbala" may be said to owe its origin to a rabbi who lived at Jerusalem in the year 300 of the

Christian era. This individual is now known to his disciples as Judas the Holy. He founded an oculists' school, which, even to this day, has doctors, disciples, and followers spread all over the East.

REVUE DE PARIS.

TO the general reader probably the most interesting contribution to the July numbers of the *Revue* will be the correspondence, extending over forty-five years, between the late Ernest Renan and M. Berthelot. The two men, though utterly unlike, enjoyed a lifelong friendship, undisturbed by quarrels, or indeed any form of disunion. At the time when the future minister first made the acquaintance of Renan, the latter had just left the seminary, and their intimacy soon became very marked. Perhaps what comes out most clearly from that portion of their correspondence here published is the early violent republicanism of Renan. Even at the age of twenty-five he was a most advanced Radical, and he foresaw a time when the French nation would speak of "Our Holy Revolution."

A place of honor is given to an article written by the late Jules Ferry in 1890, and which, though ordered by the *North American Review*, was never concluded. The views of such a man as the statesman who at one time exercised so great an influence on modern France are of course of interest; but at the time this article was written Boulangerism had only just ceased to be a living actuality, and M. Ferry devotes a considerable amount of space to demolishing the already extinguished bogie. Apropos of *le brave Général* and the enthusiasm provoked by him, he makes one very shrewd observation—namely, that in him the French nation hailed rather a Mahdi or a Messiah than a Cæsar or a Napoleon.

A Russian of rank, who prefers to remain anonymous, describes his personal recollections at the Russian campaign of 1877-78. He points out that twice during this century—in 1828 and again exactly fifty years later—victorious Russia has found herself encamped before the gates of the Turkish *caj tal*, and the writer deplors greatly the fact that the Russian army did not occupy Constantinople in 1878. Curiously enough, he blames England—not, as is generally done, for the part played by Lord Beaconsfield, but because it was apparently believed in St. Petersburg that Great Britain would actually become Russia's faithful ally. More immediately he blames the Grand Duke Nicholas, and he quotes a letter written from Alexander II. to the grand duke in the March of that year: "What will Russia—what will her glorious army say when they learn that thou hast not occupied Constantinople?"

REVUE DES DEUX MONDES.

THE clever lady who writes under the pseudonym of M. Arvède Barine has a careful study in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of the old and sad, yet ever fresh and interesting, story of that somber genius—Edgar Allan Poe.

To the second July number M. Benoist contributes a curious study of the influence which the revolt in the Philippines has had on the political morality of Spain. The truth is that the government of the Philippines has not been changed since the sixteenth century—since

Magellan, Elcano, and Legazpi. The islands are still ruled by a curious combination of soldiers and monks, a mixture of theocracy and militarism, the results of which have not proved particularly advantageous to the colony or to Spain herself. It follows naturally that, to the astonishment of spectators in other countries, the Archbishop of Manila takes it on himself quite naturally to criticise Marshal Blanco's plan of campaign, and altogether the Church in the colony enjoys an extent of power which she has scarcely attained even in Spain itself. Moreover, the Church in the Philippines is confronted by a large and powerful body of Freemasons. The mixed population of the islands—Indians, Arabs, and Chinese, as well as Spaniards and half-breeds of various degrees of Spanish blood—are practically savages, the most civilized being scarcely farther advanced than Europe was three or four centuries ago.

The first August number has an elaborate study of "The Social Transformations in Contemporary Russia," by Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu.

THE ITALIAN REVIEWS.

UNDER the title "A Glorious Reign," the *Nuova Antologia* (July 1) gives a very competent retrospect of the reign of Queen Victoria, inspired throughout by a feeling of cordial admiration and friendship. It is England's administrative capacity and integrity which excite the author's most outspoken approval. Her lack of modern educational methods and the cumbersome nature of her legal proceedings are the only blots on her political and social system that he indicates. The series of articles on socialism in France, by G. Boglietti, would be of great service to any one wishing to master the rather squalid controversies which have torn the Socialist movement into a dozen impotent factions. The mid-July number opens with a long physiological study of "Nervous Exhaustion," full of interesting details concerning the various ways in which brain fatigue shows itself in different subjects. The wonderful wireless telegraphy discovered by Signor Marconi is fully explained by E. Mancini, and the recent visit of Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria to Rome is made the occasion of a very well-informed article by V. Mantegazza, on the rise of the Bulgarian nation, and the various causes, religious and political, which have contributed to place Greece and Bulgaria in inevitable antagonism, although both are engaged in fighting the battle of Christianity against the Turks.

The first number of a new and learned review, with the title *Rivista Italiana di Sociologia*, has reached us. It is excellently printed, contains one hundred and thirty pages of matter, and promises to be of great value to all interested in the scientific study of sociological problems, which in Italy attract quite as much attention as with us. The review professes not only to give the latest results of sociological observation in articles by distinguished writers, but also to afford an opportunity of coördinating results in order to arrive at a scientific synthesis of the laws of social evolution. The opening number contains two admirable articles: one by Professor Loria, of Padua, on "Modern Theories of Population," and the other by Professor Durkheim on "The Sociological Aspects of Suicide." It has also a very complete summary of recent publications, both Italian and foreign, bearing on social problems.

THE NEW BOOKS.

IMPORTANT WORKS BY ENGLISH AUTHORS.

THE WORK OF THE FOUNDER OF THE "LANCET."

A STRIKING example of the power of the press is to be found in "The Life of Thomas Wakley," by Dr. S. Squire Sprigge (Longmans).

Thomas Wakley, although trained to be a doctor, was a born journalist. He was a reformer first, but it was by journalism that he accomplished his reforms, and it was to the newspaper that he always turned in case of need. He found the medical profession in a condition which it is almost impossible to realize to-day. He turned the light of day upon all dark places. That was all; but it was sufficient. The following extract from a letter by Sir John Eric Erichsen sums up Dr. Wakley's work for the medical profession:

"The present generation of medical men know little of him, and are for the most part ignorant how much they owe to him for exposing and fearlessly attacking the manifold abuses that existed in every department of the profession in the colleges, hospitals, and medical schools in the first third of this century. Corruption, jobbery, nepotism, promotion by purchase were rife in the colleges and hospitals, and medical education was at a low ebb when Wakley entered on his career as a journalist. By his outspoken and fearless denunciation of these abuses he brought about their reform, and so cleared the road to fame and fortune for those members of the profession who had to rely solely on their own ability and power to work. It was, in fact, Mr. Wakley who made a William Jenner or an Andrew Clark possible."

HIS MISSION.

The *Lancet* was the instrument by which Wakley worked this transformation. He founded it in 1823 and at once made it a power in the profession. The first ten years of its existence were very exciting, and the young editor had his hands full. He let in the light of publicity upon the "family intrigues and foolish nepotism that swayed the elections to lucrative posts in the metropolitan hospitals and medical corporations." As can be imagined, he was cordially hated by all the privileged classes. Dr. Sprigge says:

"He considered himself to be under a mandate from the profession at large, not only to keep them well posted in the scientific side of their work, but to see that the rights of the general body of practitioners were not infringed by a particular set of persons. This attitude it was that prompted him to violent attacks upon individuals: this it was that made him so intolerant to the contemporary medical press, which was written to please the eminent few rather than the profession at large; and this it was that was responsible for all the good that arose, directly or indirectly, from the founding of the *Lancet*, as it was responsible for certain errors of taste and judgment which marked the early career of the paper. . . . The harm it did was small and recoiled chiefly upon Wakley, who was never afraid to meet his liabilities, while the value of his fearlessness and ardor to the cause of reform was incalculable."

A PRACTICAL ENTHUSIAST.

Wakley was a man who clearly saw the object he wished to attain. He was impetuous and rash possibly, but he always had a clear sense of what was practical. Wherever he saw an abuse he denounced it, but he was always careful to have his facts well in hand.

In 1839 Wakley was elected coroner for West Middlesex. As was to be expected, he at once began making reforms, which were bitterly opposed by the old-established authorities. The first few years of his coronership were stormy indeed, but he proved too much for his opponents.

Whatever might be the object Wakley worked for, he always relied on the *Lancet* as his chief weapon of offense and defense. The abuses he attacked and the shams he exposed were numberless. One of the most useful agitations he undertook was that in favor of pure food. He opened a careful inquiry in the columns of the *Lancet* into the food-stuffs of the nation. So thorough and uncompromising was the investigation that it frightened individual evil-doers into better behavior and opened the eyes of Parliament to the absolute necessity for State interference.

THE SECRET OF SUCCESS.

The secret of Wakley's success was the whole-hearted way with which he threw himself into anything he had to do:

"It was his habit to write, speak, and act as if nothing on earth mattered to him save the question under discussion, and more, as if the man to whom any other question might appear as of even comparative importance was convicted of foolishness. . . . Consequently, Wakley's audience was never neutral, but always for him or against him, and his name was always associated by friend or foe with the particular subject his treatment of which had either compelled admiration or provoked animosity."

It is impossible to do justice to such a man during his lifetime, nor until many years after his death. His interests are so numerous and his decisions so rapid that it is almost impossible for his contemporaries to discern the purpose and aim which connects all his actions. Wakley did as much as any one to show that the press is an immense power for good when directed by a man of energy and convictions. Reform by newspaper may be sneered at, but it is not pleasant to think of the position of the medical profession had it not been compelled to reform its ways by the fear of the *Lancet*. Dr. Sprigge set himself a difficult task in writing "The Life of Thomas Wakley," but he has succeeded in bringing vividly before the mind of the reader the personality of one who contributed not a little to the progress of the Victorian era.

THE GROWTH OF THE ENGLISH-SPEAKING RACE.

IN order to enable Englishmen to take an intelligent interest in their great colonies, Messrs. Horace Marshall & Son have commenced the publication of an excellent series of histories, entitled "The Story of the Empire." These will tell briefly the stories of the various portions of the British empire. The series is to be edited by Mr. H. Angus Kennedy.

THE EVOLUTION OF THE VILLAGE.

Sir Walter Besant writes the first volume on "The Rise of the Empire." He gives us a brief but comprehensive glance of the gradual expansion of the empire

from the earliest times. In "The Making of the People" Sir Walter describes the drawing together of isolated villages, each almost entirely self-supporting. Almost, but not entirely. The great civilizing agent, Sir Walter Besant maintains, was—salt. Without it life is intolerable. To obtain it mutual intercourse and barter is necessary. So trade grew and taught men to break bread with each other rather than break each other's heads.

Trade bound a people together, but war welded them into a nation. It taught in a rough-and-ready fashion the duty of union. So the English nation was formed; but to the villager the whole world was an unknown wilderness. Suddenly all this was changed. The villager became a Christian, and he began to go on pilgrimages. In this way the Englishman as we know him was molded.

THE AVERAGE ENGLISHMAN.

The following is Sir Walter Besant's character sketch of the average Englishman:

"He is, to begin with, more readily attracted by things practical than by things theoretical; he prefers a feat of arms to any intellectual achievement; he would rather hear of things done than of things attempted; he worships success in everything, because success means battle and victory; he is combative and aggressive; he likes fighting as much as his ancestors. Whenever there is fighting to be had, whenever the army is creditably engaged, the recruits flock in by thousands. He is subject to restlessness; he cannot be always sitting still; he will throw up his situation and go roaming about the world; he likes trade, especially trade across the seas, because it demands enterprise and courage—it is a great mistake to suppose that the love of trade denotes a mean and money-grubbing spirit. He is profoundly religious, but he will not endure the dominion of priests; he is tender and even chivalrous toward women; he loves children; he sits at home with his wife and children and desires no other society. To the kings who have from time to time attempted to extend the royal prerogative and to curtail his own liberties, he has always opposed a steady, stubborn resistance—in the long run it has been the worse for that king—and he demands freedom of speech, freedom of thought, freedom of faith. He insists on self-government as his inheritance, he enters into combinations and associations with readiness, and understands what is meant by give and take. He is not the most courteous person in the civilized world; he is well satisfied with himself; he seldom troubles himself much about the position and the views of other people. Add to all these points that he is a strong, big, and healthy animal; that he is greatly led by his animal instincts; and that his views on all subjects are influenced by sentiment rather than reason."

WHAT OF THE FUTURE—WAR OR PEACE?

As to the future Sir Walter is hopeful. We have now six countries which speak the same language, practically claim the same religion, have the same ancestry, obey the same institutions, and read the same literature. These six countries are Great Britain and Ireland, the United States of America, the Dominion of Canada, South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand. They occupy the best places of the world, and are unassailable by other nations except by sea. They lead the van of civilization all the world over. Are these peoples to fight like the European nations? "In that case one would despair of humanity: one would desire death rather than the loss of so splendid a chance for the advancement of humanity and the peace of the world."

Sir Walter Besant makes a strong plea for a united confederation of English-speaking States. The United States, he thinks, may continue to stand aloof, but he hopes not.

THE LAND OF THE THOUSAND LAKES.

MRS. TWEEDIE'S new book, "Through Finland in Carts" (Macmillan, \$5), will be a revelation to many people. Most of us have hitherto regarded the Finns as somewhat akin to the Lapps and other inhabitants of the polar regions. To find that, in reality, in some things they are in the forefront of civilization is not a little surprising. Mrs. Tweedie traveled over and around a great part of Finland, although the journey in carts was only one of many incidents. She praises the Finns highly, and with reason. Finland is the land of the thousand lakes, and of the many, many thousand islands. The scenery is neither grand nor impressive, but it has a charm all its own. The country is very flat; even in the north the highest point is barely four thousand feet.

THE PLAGUE OF INSECTS.

It is a primitive and picturesque land, with most kind and hospitable people, but it has one great drawback—its mosquitoes, its bugs, and its flies. These seem to be veritable pests. Mrs. Tweedie gives a graphic account of the tortures she underwent.

The flies are such torments that when milking-time arrives the people simply build fires and the animals at once come to the smoke to be relieved of their persecutors.

WOMEN IN FINLAND.

But it would be unfair to regard Finland simply as a land which suffers from a permanent plague of insects. After being dormant for centuries the people have at last awakened and have made great strides in civilization. They enjoy a large measure of home rule from the czar, and have been allowed to do much as they please. One would hardly have expected to find Finland in the van of the woman's movement, but so it is. Women in Finland enjoy great freedom, even being allowed—tell it not in Cambridge!—to take their degrees at the universities. "There is no sex in Finland," Mrs. Tweedie declares; "men and women are practically equals, and on that basis society is formed." There is no law to prevent women working at anything they choose. They have availed themselves fully of this right. Mrs. Tweedie gives a very interesting table of the employments in which women are engaged. They are carpenters, paperhangers, watchmakers, goldsmiths, slaughterers, printers, and bricklayers. They are also employed as clerks in business offices of all kinds, in shops and public works. In 1894 there were 50 women principals of workhouses, 130 women poor-law guardians, and 283 members of school boards; 849 women occupy positions under the State, and 100 are employed in municipal offices. Women in Finland are even magistrates, and policemen in the office, but not out of doors. They are not debarred from becoming members of the great societies. Seventy-three women belong to the Geographical Society. The Literary Society has 82 women on its books. Finland is also making great strides in education. Common schools, where boys and girls are taught together, are being established all over the land. Everything is being done to improve the education of the people, and in this movement women take a prominent part. Mrs. Tweedie gives a very interesting account of the people and their customs and of her personal experiences. It is a well-written travel book, which contains much that is useful and entertaining.

RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY.

Hannibal: Soldier, Statesman, Patriot, and the Crisis of the Struggle Between Carthage and Rome. By William O'Connor Morris. 12mo, pp. 392. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.50.

Within a few years several excellent biographies of the great Carthaginian commander have appeared—notably the volume by Colonel Dodge, of the United States Army. The present work meets the demand for a popular and low-priced sketch of Hannibal's career which should embody the results of modern research. Mr. Morris has based his studies on the investigations of Mommsen, Hénnebért, and other scholars. His authorities seem to have been chosen with discrimination. The book is provided with numerous maps, plans, and other illustrations.

Roman Life in Pliny's Time. By Maurice Pellison. Translated from the French by Maud Wilkinson. With introduction by Frank J. Miller. 12mo, pp. 315. Meadville, Pa.: The Chautauqua-Century Press. \$1.

We are indebted to the Chautauqua-Century Press and to the requirements of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle in 1897-98 for a readable and entertaining translation of a French scholar's study in Roman civilization. Such subjects as "Education," "Women and Marriage," "The Roman House," "The Servants," "The Transaction of Business," "The Bar," "Society," "Amusements," and "Traveling," as they are reflected in the writings of Pliny, are graphically presented in this volume.

Roman and Medieval Art. By W. H. Goodyear. 12mo, pp. 307. Meadville, Pa.: The Chautauqua-Century Press. \$1.

This volume in the "Chautauqua Reading Circle Literature," which first appeared in 1893, has been revised and enlarged; it is now published with many new illustrations.

Imperial Germany: A Critical Study of Fact and Character. By Sidney Whitman. 12mo, pp. 330. Meadville, Pa.: The Chautauqua-Century Press. \$1.

In this new American edition "Imperial Germany" has been thoroughly revised and brought up to date. It has also been enriched by numerous interesting portraits of men notable in the life of modern Germany, and other appropriate illustrations have been added. The volume forms an important feature in the Chautauqua required reading of the coming year.

The Dungeons of Old Paris. By Tighe Hopkins. 8vo, pp. 265. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.75.

Not even felicities of treatment can relieve the grewsomeness of Mr. Hopkins' subject, but the writer pursues his theme with the enthusiasm of the confirmed antiquarian, and his researches are not without an important bearing on the social and political history of the times to which they pertain. Certainly the dungeon has played a most essential part in the drama of French history.

SOCIOLOGY AND ECONOMICS.

The Social Spirit in America. By C. R. Henderson. 12mo, pp. 350. Meadville, Pa.: The Chautauqua-Century Press. \$1.

Professor Henderson's book is less a philosophical analysis than a suggestive *résumé* of the social movements of our day. Each of his chapters has a direct, practical lesson to teach. Among the topics treated in the volume we note the following: "Home-Making as a Social Art," "Friendly Circles of Women Wage-Earners," "Better Houses for the Peo-

ple," "Public Health," "Good Roads," "What Good Employers Are Doing," "Organizations of Wage-Earners," "The Social Spirit in the State School System," "Socialized Beauty and Recreation."

Introduction to the Study of Economics. By Charles Jesse Bullock, Ph.D. 12mo, pp. 511. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co. \$1.40.

The number of elementary text-books in political economy has become so large that there would seem to be some danger of overcrowding the field, and yet we cannot regret the appearance of any work in this department which gives promise of even a slight improvement on its predecessors. Dr. Bullock has certainly profited by his study of economic literature, and if he has made no striking original contribution to the science, he has at least summarized the most valuable results of other men's study. He has done this fairly, in a catholic and truth-seeking spirit, in a well-ordered and well-proportioned volume. Economic principles are discussed by this writer with special reference to American conditions. Illustrations are sought in American history.

The Economic History of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad, 1827-1853. By Milton Reizenstein, Ph.D. Paper, 8vo, pp. 89. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press. 50 cents.

The history of the earliest American experiment in the development of long-distance transportation by rail is certainly interesting, and it is fitting that the economics of the subject should be treated in the publications of the university whose fortunes, whether for good or ill, have been so bound up with the career of the great corporation which so many years ago linked Baltimore, commercially, with the central West. In the period covered by Dr. Reizenstein's monograph there was nothing to conceal in the financial operations of the Baltimore & Ohio. What happened later makes another story.

The General Property Tax in California. By Carl C. Plehn, Ph.D. Paper, 12mo, pp. 80. (American Economic Association. Economic Studies.) New York: The Macmillan Company. 50 cents.

Dr. Plehn has made an exhaustive study of the California tax system, and has presented the results in a comprehensive and useful form. The general property tax laws of California are usually regarded as among the most perfect of their kind, but Dr. Plehn makes a startling exhibit of their hopeless failure in operation.

Sound Money Monographs. By William C. Cornwell. 16mo, pp. 178. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.

Mr. William C. Cornwell, president of the City Bank of Buffalo and widely known as the author of an able work on the Canadian currency and banking law, has compiled a collection of his addresses and magazine articles on the question of the currency. Several of these are echoes from the campaign of 1896. The volume as a whole presents succinctly and forcibly the case against the greenbacks and the well-known arguments for the single gold standard.

Monetary Problems and Reforms. By Charles H. Swan, Jr. 12mo, pp. 82. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.

Another book on the money question which gives special attention to the problem of legal tender. There is also a chapter on a proposed system of international coinage. The writer is avowedly opposed to any scheme of international bimetallicism.

LITERATURE.

The Literary Movement in France During the Nineteenth Century. By Georges Pellissier. Authorized English version by Anne Garrison Brinton. 8vo, pp. 560. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$3.50.

As regards the general value of M. Pellissier's work there seems to have been little difference of opinion among students of modern French literature. It is a serious philosophical treatise—a book to be studied rather than skimmed. This first English translation will put American readers in possession of a key to a better comprehension of the forces at work in literary France. Some reviews of the book have called attention to serious errors in the translator's work, but on the whole it is believed that the meaning of the original has been preserved with tolerable care. The welcome that has been accorded this version by students suggests the desirability of an English translation of M. Brunetière's scholarly essay, "*Nouvelles Questions de Critique*," which serves as a commentary on Pellissier's work.

Lectures on Literature, English, French, Spanish. By Richard Malcolm Johnston. 18mo, pp. 269. Akron, Ohio: D. H. McBride & Co. 50 cents.

Many admirers of Mr. Richard Malcolm Johnston will be glad to have in this convenient form the lectures in literary criticism which he delivered at the Convent of Notre Dame and at the Peabody Institute of Baltimore before classes of advanced students. A brief general survey is attempted of the salient characteristics and important personalities of the English, French, and Spanish literatures.

Authors and Publishers: A Manual of Suggestions for Beginners in Literature. By G. H. P. and J. B. P. Seventh edition. 12mo, pp. 301. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.75.

In the case of this book the authors' initials (which will be recognized as belonging to the Messrs. George Haven and J. B. Putnam) form of themselves a sufficient commendation. The fact that the work has reached its seventh edition seems to show that it has been appreciated by the "beginners in literature" for whose benefit it was prepared. As now rewritten, the volume contains a store of well-digested information and advice, the outcome of years devoted to the publishers' craft. No one who avails himself of the authors' experience in book ventures need go far astray. Conservatism has become their second nature, and their injunctions may well be heeded and followed by the novice in literature.

OUT-OF-DOOR LIFE.

Diomed: The Life, Travels, and Observations of a Dog. By John Sergeant Wise. 12mo, pp. 330. Boston: Lamson, Wolfe & Co. \$2.

This is one of the successful books of the year, and it required a very short time to establish its success. It appeals to all lovers of healthful and honest sport, to all friends of the canine tribe, and to the still wider circle of young and old who like to read good stories, whether dogs or men are the heroes. The volume records gunning adventures in the South and in the Northwest. The author, a talented and well-known Virginian who for some years has been a popular member of the New York bar, has been ably seconded by the illustrator, Mr. J. Linton Chapman, whose portrayals of hunting scenes are unexcelled.

Familiar Features of the Roadside: The Flowers, Shrubs, Birds, and Insects. By F. Schuyler Mathews. 12mo, pp. 283. New York: D. Appleton & Co. \$1.75.

Perhaps the present season has been rather more prolific than previous years in books of this class, but there is little danger of surfeit. It is a type of literature that has not been "overworked." If such books accomplished nothing more

than to incite and direct mankind and womankind to a closer study of nature, they would not have been written or published in vain. Mr. Mathews' latest volume does this, and more, for it summarizes a great deal of exact knowledge which is not easily acquired elsewhere in so convenient or attractive a form. The illustration, which is all excellent, consists of many drawings by the author, half-tone views of American rural scenery, and reproductions of the songs of birds and insects.

The Story of the Earth's Atmosphere. By Douglas Archibald, M.A. 16mo, pp. 194. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 40 cents.

The "Library of Useful Stories" is the label of an ambitious attempt to beguile the youthful mind into the pursuit of science thinly disguised in a series of tales. While Mr. Archibald's little treatise is not a "story" in any sense, it contains an admirable presentation of certain facts in the realm of nature with which most students of physical geography become only incidentally acquainted. The author's aim is to show that "the atmosphere possesses growing uses and interests quite apart from and in addition to its consideration as a vehicle of weather." The chapter on "Suspension and Flight in the Atmosphere" is well up to date, and would interest any boy of kite-flying proclivities.

ESSAYS, ETC.

The Children. By Alice Meynell. 16mo, pp. 134. New York: John Lane. \$1.25.

A book to be unreservedly commended to all the modern devotees of "child-study." It may not help them in acquiring formal methods of research, but it gives them the results—which is more to the purpose. Mrs. Meynell is a delightful interpreter of child-thought and child-nature. Few writers have succeeded half so well in expressing what so often goes unexpressed—the sentiments and aspirations of healthy childhood.

Success is for You. By Dorothy Quigley. 12mo, pp. 174. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.

The Way to Keep Young. By Dorothy Quigley. 12mo, pp. 92. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 75 cents.

The very tone of these little books is invigorating. The reader puts them down with the feeling that he is better braced for life's struggle, that he has somehow received a mental and moral uplift, that his nerves have been strengthened. The themes are not new in themselves, but the point of view is the writer's own. The language is not hackneyed, nor are the thoughts trite. So much should be said about any serious attempt to deal with such subjects as "success" and "youth," if we would not frighten away the cautious. There are no pious platitudes in these books. The treatment is direct, forcible, unconventional, and the style is suited to the matter.

The Librarian of the Sunday-School: A Manual. By Elizabeth Louise Foote, A.B. With a chapter on the Sunday-School Library by Martha Thorne Wheeler. 16mo, pp. 81. New York: Eaton & Mains. 35 cents.

So rarely is the Sunday-school library in these days taken seriously that we are almost startled by the appearance of this sensible and wholly meritorious little book, which has evidently been prepared with a view to practical results in Sunday-school library management. Intelligent and expert advice of this kind should have been given long ago, and now that it is available to all, we hope that it will be appreciated at its true worth by those who can profit by it. The concluding chapter, by Miss Wheeler, is a forcible plea for the cause, and altogether it would seem that if anything can stimulate to a wiser selection and better care of books by Sunday-school officers, the publication of this unpretentious work should do it.

CONTENTS OF REVIEWS AND MAGAZINES.

LEADING ARTICLES IN THE SEPTEMBER MAGAZINES.

- The Arena.**—Boston. September.
- Concentration of Wealth, Its Cause and Results.—I. H. E. Taubeneck.
- The Future of the Democratic Party. David Overmyer.
- The Multiple Standard for Money. Eitwee Pomeroy.
- Anticipating the Unearned Increment. I. W. Hart.
- Studies in Ultimate Society.—I. Laurence Gronlund.
- General Weyler's Campaign. Crittenden Marriott.
- The Author of "The Messiah." B. O. Flower.
- Open Letter to President Andrews. John Clark Ridpath.
- The Cry of the Poor. John Clark Ridpath.
- Annals of the American Academy.**—Philadelphia. (Bimonthly.) September.
- The Shiftless and Floating City Population. E. T. Devine.
- The Problems of Political Science. Leo S. Rowe.
- The Philosophical Basis of Economics. Sidney Sherwood.
- Administrative Centralization and Decentralization in England. James T. Young.
- Current Transportation Topics.—II. Emory R. Johnson.
- Atlantic Monthly.**—Boston. September.
- Municipal Administration: The New York Police Force. Theodore Roosevelt.
- Are the Rich Growing Richer and the Poor Poorer? C. D. Wright.
- A New Organization for the New Navy. I. N. Hollis.
- On Being Human. Woodrow Wilson.
- A Southerner in the Peloponnesian War. B. L. Gildersleeve.
- Some Unpublished Letters of Dean Swift. G. B. Hill.
- The American Notion of Equality. Henry C. Merwin.
- A Carolina Mountain Pond. Bradford Torrey.
- An Astronomical Experience in Japan. Mabel L. Todd.
- The Bookman.**—New York. September.
- Relics of Emily Brontë. C. K. Shorter.
- American Bookmen.—VII. Some Humorists.
- American Art Criticism. Norman Hapgood.
- Century Magazine.**—New York. September.
- Royalists and Republicans. Pierre de Coubertin.
- Prisoners of State at Boro Boedor. Eliza R. Scidmore.
- Cruelty in the Congo Free State. E. J. Glave.
- Glimpses of Gladstone. Harry Furniss.
- A New Note in American Sculpture. Arthur Hoebler.
- Campaigning with Grant. Gen. Horace Porter.
- Browning's Summer in Brittany. A. M. Mosher.
- The Chautauquan.**—Meadville, Pa. September.
- Life in Washington, D.C.—II. William Eleroy Curtis.
- Tenement-House Reform in New York City. S. P. Cadman.
- Plato and His Republic. Paul Sherey.
- Mark Twain's Place in Literature. David Masters.
- The Influence of the Fine Arts. C. M. Fairbanks.
- Sons of Recent Presidents of the United States. F. Coates.
- Electricity During the Last Five Years. Franz Bendt.
- The Gold-Seeker in the West. Sam Davis.
- The Yankee of the South. Elijah Greene.
- Defense Against Disease. E. Duclaux.
- Origin of the Republican Party. C. M. Harvey.
- The Life and Battles of Bees. George E. Walsh.
- Street Life in Jeremie, Haiti. Lillian D. Kelsey.
- The Cosmopolitan.**—Irvington, N. Y. September.
- A New University.
- Making a Magazine.
- Catharine de Medici as a Sentimentalist. Eleanor Lewis.
- The Real India. Julian Hawthorne.
- The Klondike Gold Region. Robert Oglesby.
- Music Halls and Popular Songs. Reginald de Koven.
- On the Art of Dress. Ouida.
- Two New Educational Ideals. Elisha Benjamin Andrews.
- Frank Leslie's Popular Monthly.**—New York. September.
- The Historic Walkkill Valley. John P. Ritter.
- Cycle Touring in Ireland. R. H. Herron.
- Wellesley College. Virginia Sherwood.
- The United States Marine Hospital Service. Joanna R. Nichols.
- The Capital of Bahia. Henry Greyson.
- Plantation Life in Dixie. Garrard Harris.
- The Rise of Pittsburgh. Charles T. Logan.
- Harper's Magazine.**—New York. September.
- Around London by Bicycle. Elizabeth Robbins Pennell.
- The Milkweed. William Hamilton Gibson.
- A Twentieth-Century Outlook. A. T. Mahan.
- The Beginnings of the American Navy. James Barnes.
- George du Maurier. Henry James.
- The Lotus Land of the Pacific. John H. Wagner.
- Ladies' Home Journal.**—Philadelphia. September.
- When Henry Clay Said Farewell to the Senate. John F. Coyle.
- Floral Effects for Home Weddings. W. M. Johnson.
- What a Woman Can Do with a Camera. Frances B. Johnston.
- Lippincott's Magazine.**—Philadelphia. September.
- The Trend of Horticulture. George E. Walsh.
- The Rocky Mountain Prophets. William T. Larned.
- Europe and the Exposition of 1900. Theodore Stanton.
- The Chicago Drainage Canal. John L. Wright.
- European Housekeeping. Frances Courtenay Baylor.
- Musical Mexico. Arthur H. Noll.
- Books That Girls Have Loved. Erin Graham.
- McClure's Magazine.**—New York. September.
- The Cleaning of a Great City. G. E. Waring, Jr.
- Life Portraits of Henry Clay.
- Life in the Klondike Gold Fields. J. L. Steffens.
- When Were the Gospels Written? F. G. Kenyon.
- Midland Monthly.**—Des Moines, Iowa. September.
- Picturesque Hawaii. Carmen H. Austin.
- Princess Angelina. Jennie Simpson-Moore.
- Grant's Life in the West.—XII. Col. J. W. Emerson.
- Chief Black Hawk. Albina M. Letts.
- Art in its Relation to Life. Harriet C. Towner.
- The Yukon Valley Gold-Fields.
- Munsey's Magazine.**—New York. September.
- The Commune of Paris.—II. Molly Elliot Seawell.
- The Palace Cottages of Newport. Edge Kavanagh.
- Life at a Girl's College.
- Molding the New Metropolis. William C. De Witt.
- National Magazine.**—Boston. September.
- A Dash for the North Pole. Walter Wellman.
- How Greely was Rescued. Joanna R. Nicholls.
- Some Recollections of the Century. Edward E. Hale.
- Christ and His Time.—XI. Dallas L. Sharp.
- The National Yellowstone Park. W. D. Van Blarcom, Jr.
- New England Magazine.**—Boston. September.
- Brother Jonathan and His Home. W. E. Griffiths.
- Robert Pike, a Forgotten Champion of Freedom. N. N. Withington.
- Cuttyhunk. Arthur C. Hall.
- Next of Kin to Fisher. Azel Ames.
- Greek Letter Societies in American Colleges. E. H. L. Randolph.
- Travel in Early New England. Amelia L. Hill.
- Old Dover, New Hampshire. Caroline H. Garland.
- Scribner's Magazine.**—New York. September.
- San Sebastian, the Spanish Newport. W. H. Bishop.
- To the Shores of the Mingan Seigniory. Frederic Irland.
- Some Notes on Tennessee's Centennial. F. Hopkinson Smith.
- Lord Byron on the Greek Revolution. F. B. Sanborn.
- At the Foot of the Rockies. Abbe C. Goodloe.

THE OTHER AMERICAN AND ENGLISH PERIODICALS.

(From the latest numbers received.)

American Amateur Photographer.—New York. August.

The Dansac-Chassagne Process.

Canterbury. Walter Sprange.

Printing in Colors.

Photographic Chemicals and Their Adulterations.

American Catholic Quarterly Review.—Philadelphia. July.

Catholic Secondary Education in the United States. J. T. Murphy.

The Episcopate of Bishop Baraga. Richard R. Elliott.

Catholic Spain—Its Politics and Liberalism. T. Hughes.

Some Reflections on Edmund Burke's Centenary. J. J. O'Shea.
Dr. F. H. Bradley's Appearance and Reality. St. George Mivart.
St. Cyprian and the Holy See. William Barry.
A New Oxford Movement in England. James Kendall.
The Turkish Struggle with Catholic Europe. B. J. Clinch.
Jacques André Emery. S. L. Emery.
The Old Faith and the New Woman. George Tyrrell.
In Memoriam—The Very Rev. Augustine F. Hewit, D.D.

The A. M. E. Church Review.—Philadelphia. July.
The Devil. George W. Brent.
The Negro Among Anglo-Saxon Poets. Katherine D. Tillman.
General Antonio Maceo. Frank J. Webb.
Three Growth. John S. Durham.
The General Conference of 1896. A. Grant.
How to Make Reading Profitable. O. Faduma.
Bimetallism and Industrialism. James T. Holly.

American Monthly Magazine.—Washington. August.
The Siege of Boston. Katharine L. Alden.
Share of Connecticut in the Revolution.
The Wife of Lafayette.

American Monthly Review of Reviews.—New York. August.
The Anatomy of the New Tariff. Charles A. Conant.
The Two Republics of the Southern Cross. F. E. Clark.
Hawaiian Island Climate. C. F. Nichols.
A Rose Carnival on Puget Sound. Bernice E. Newell.
Continuous Sessions of Schools. E. A. Kirkpatrick.
Vacation Schools in New York. William H. Tolman.

Appleton's Popular Science Monthly.—New York. August.
The Racial Geography of Europe.—VI. W. Z. Ripley.
New Questions in Medical Jurisprudence. T. D. Crowthers.
Principles of Taxation.—IX. David A. Wells.
The Thyroid Gland in Medicine. Pearce Bailey.
The Despotism of Democracy. Franklin Smith.
A Tortoise-shell Wild Cat. W. H. Ballou.
Anthropology a University Study. John S. Flagg.
Stones in the Head. A. Cartaz.
A Lilliputian Monster. Robert Blight.
Number Systems. Edwin S. Crawley.
Ivory: Its Sources and Uses. N. B. Nelson.
The Paradox of Diderot. Alfred Binet.

The Architectural Record.—New York. (Quarterly.) July-September.

The Villas of Rome.—II. Marcus T. Reynolds.
Swiss Chalets.—II. Jean Schopfer.
The Entasis in Medieval Italian Architecture.—I.
French Cathedrals.—XI. Barr Ferree.

Art Amateur.—New York. August.
Correct Drawing in Photographs. Alice E. Ives.
Pen-and-Ink Sketching for Practice. Roger Riordan.
Past Fashions in Dress. Alice E. Ives.
Design Applied to Wood-Carving. Karl von Rydylingsvärd.

Art Interchange.—New York. August.
Some Impressions of Sweden.
The Antiquity of Tapestries.
Ornamental Art from the Decline of the Cinque-cento Period.—II.
Mr. Stimson's Lesson from the Lily. Henry McBride

Atalanta.—London. August.
An Egyptian Fair at Sitte Dimiana.
August: the Virgin. Gertrude Oliver-Williams.
Underground Paris. Alice Dreyfuss.

Badminton Magazine.—London. August.
The Latter-Day Wager. Harold McFarlane.
A Sporting Trip to Cape L'Aguilhas. H. B. Knoblauch.
Queer Recoveries. Lady Middleton.
Haffinger Horses. Clare S. Strong.
Polo on the Pampas. Ann Scott-Moncrieff.
Horse-Racing in England at the Queen's Accession. E. Anthony.

Bankers' Magazine.—London. August.
Changes in Banking and Banking Life.
The Bank of England.—VII.
Usury.
Transactions of the Bank of France for 1896.
Report of the Imperial Bank of Germany for 1896.
Jottings About Scottish Bank-Notes.

Biblical World.—Chicago. August.
Revelation: An Exposition. Walter Rauschenbusch.
The Gospel and the Greek Mysteries. Augustine S. Carman.

The Most Urgent Need in Old Testament Study. W. J. Beecher.
The Primitive Era of Christianity. C. W. Votaw.

Blackwood's Magazine.—Edinburgh. August.
A Glimpse of the Late Græco-Turkish War. C. E. Callwell.
Early Victorian Traveling.
The Native Army of India.
Italian Journalism as Seen in Fiction.
Faces and Places. Louis Robinson.
A Reminiscence of Tennyson. William Knight.
At Dawn of Day.
The Prisons of Siberia.—III. J. Y. Simpson.
The Conduct and Present Condition of Greece. W. B. Harris.
A Healthy Change.

Board of Trade Journal.—London. July 15.
The Stockholm Exhibition and the Development of Swedish Trade.
The Decadence of the Port of Marseilles and the Proposed Rhone Canal.
The American Tin-Plate Industry.
The Mineral and Metal Production of the United States.
The Trade and Industry of Punta Arenas.
The Trade of Egypt in 1896.
Revival of the Foreign Trade of China.

Borderland.—London. (Quarterly.) July.
Psychical Research in the Victorian Era. Miss X.
Haunted Houses. Mrs. Russell-Davies and Others.
Mugnano; an Italian Lourdes. Miss X.
John Hinchliffe, a Lancashire Healer. George Frankland.
Demons as Witnesses in Court. J. A. Maung Gyl.
Duppies, Obeah, and Other Specialties of the West Indies. E. K. Bates.

Canadian Magazine.—Toronto. August.
Measure Mending. C. R. Coutlee.
My Contemporaries in Fiction.—X. David Christie Murray.
A Glimpse of Norway.—II. Winnifred Wilton.
The Royal Canadian Academy. James Smith.
To Cape North. J. W. Longley.

Cassell's Family Magazine.—London. August.
The Court of Austria. A. de Burgh.
Something About Umbrellas. Alexis Krausse.
After Sixty Years. Theodore A. Cock.
Rock Climbers in the Dolomites. Harold Spender.
Safes; Steel Walls and Their Stories. W. B. Robertson.

Catholic World.—New York. August.
Very Rev. Augustine F. Hewit, D.D.
Our Boys. Michael P. Heffernan.
The Ancient City of Arles. Emma Endres.
Life-Work of a Great Catholic Apologist. M. O'Riordan.
Monseigneur d'Hulst.
Rossetti's Poetry. Charles A. L. Morse.
"Farthest North," by Dr. Nansen. George McDermot.
Psychology of the Beaver. William Seton.
A Hero of the Swiss Republic. Mary E. Blake.
Nature Study in Our Schools. F. C. Farinholz.
A Heartless Sin of Omission. G. Lee.
Mother Duchesne, an Uncanonized American Saint. S. L. Emery.

Chambers's Journal.—Edinburgh. August.
Banana-Growing for the Markets. Rowland W. Cater.
The Providence of Book-Hunters. Anna Blackwell.
The Dyaks of Borneo.
Deer Forest Romance.
Strathspey. Benjamin Taylor.
The Cycle and the Trade of the Midlands.
A Trappist Monastery in Natal. Carlyle Smythe.
Zanzibar Slavery. Lieut. Stuart D. Gordon.

Church Quarterly Review.—London. July.
Our Lord's Divine and Human Knowledge.
Mr. Gladstone's "Later Gleanings."
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The Poetry of George Meredith.
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Mr. Barnato. Harry Raymond.
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Machiavelli in Modern Politics. Frederick Greenwood.

Rome. Arthur Symons.

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A Study of the American Girl. Mary A. Fanton.

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The Aim of Education. E. C. Tait.

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C. Hankin.

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Thomas Sulman.

In the Streets of Paris. Ellen G. Cohen.

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The Fur Seal Problem. John T. Morgan.

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Leonardo da Vinci. Viktor Rydberg.

The Central Caucasus.—I. Emilio Gallo.

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Constantine Meunier. W. Shaw Sparrow.

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The Guards Under Queen Anne. J. W. Fortescue.
The Patriotic Historians of Scotland. V. V. Branford.
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Burke and Scott: the Sentiment of Chivalry. T. E. Kebbel.

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- Judaism Made the Jew. M. Friedlander.
The National Farm School.
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- The Queen of the Navy. Minna Irving.
General Lyon and the Fight for Missouri. Capt. J. S. Clark.
Birds of the Midland Region.—II. David L. Savage.
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Work Among Italian Navvies.
Evangelization of the French Canadians.
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The Scandinavian Alliance Mission of America. R. A. Jernberg.
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The Variability of the Moral Standard. Joseph Rickaby.

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Balakirew and Borodine. A. Fougín.
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Hills, Coves and Streets of Old Boston. Edward E. Hale.
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Theosophy and Ethics. E. T. Hargrove.
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The Menace of Legislation. James H. Eckels.

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- The Religion of Islam. Père Hyacinthe Loyson.
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The Evolution of Evolution. Moncure D. Conway.

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- Golfers in Action. Price Collier.
The Fishes of Our Boyhood. E. W. Sandys.

Coasting the Mediterranean Awheel. Paul S. Jenks.
Some of the Season's Yachts and Freaks. A. J. Kenealy.
The Poughkeepsie Boat-Races. Chase Mellen.
Polo in Play. A. H. Godfrey.
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The Master of Balliol. Herbert V. Abbott.
The Cambridge Conferences. Mrs. Ole Bull.
Studying the Sun. David P. Todd.
The Story of Gladstone's Life.—XXI. Justin McCarthy.
How to Study an English Cathedral.—II. Helen M. North.
The Kindergarten Ideal. Susan E. Blow.

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Promo Wampum Makers. John W. Hudson.
Great Public Libraries in the United States. E. S. Holden.
Unexplored Regions of the High Sierra.—VI. T. S. Solomon.
Hunting in Southern Oregon. John E. Bennett.
Decline and Fall of the Great Toe. Eugene Murray-Aaron.
Public Education in Norseland. William F. Larsen.
A Brief History of Currency in Japan. F. K. Abe.

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Finland; In the Land of a Thousand Lakes. M. A. Stobart.
Cricket. Lord Harris.
General Lee, of Virginia. Continued. Henry Tyrrell.
Bombay; a Capital of Greater Britain. G. W. Forrest.
Queen Caroline's Visit to St. Paul's Cathedral, 1830. Francis Montefiore.

Photo-American.—New York. August.

A Device for Changing Plates Outdoors. Edwin Russell.
Picture-Making. A. J. Aldrich.
Bed-Room Photography. Albert G. Robinson.
Stepping-Stones to Photography.—VII. Edward W. Newcomb.

Photo-Beacon.—Chicago. August.

Should Photographers Go In for Genre Work?
Photography as a Means of Existence.
Short Talks on Picture-Making.—II. F. Dundas Todd.
Floral Photography. Ernest W. Jackson.
Platinum Paper. Robert Ayton.

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Focusing Attachments for Cameras. E. J. Prindle.
Naturalistic Photography. P. H. Emerson.
Composition.—II. G. Davison.
Science and Art. Mario del Fiori.
Photography in Colors. Thomas Bolas.
The Chemistry of Common Processes. H. C. L. Bloxam.
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Philip Melancthon, Scholar and Reformer. John DeWitt.
Mariolatry. Robert P. Farris.
Pope Leo XIII. on the Validity of Anglican Orders. R. C. Reed.
The Public Language of Our Lord. R. B. Woodworth.
A Divine Manual for All Christian Workers. A. W. Pitzer.
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A Plea for Unity. Robert P. Kerr.
The Southern General Assembly, 1897. W. McF. Alexander.

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The Tory Origin of Free Trade Policy. W. J. Ashley.
Certain Tendencies in Political Economy. Bernard Moses.
The German Exchange Act of 1886. Ernest Loeb.
The Value of the Money Unit. T. N. Carver.
The Career of Francis Amasa Walker. C. F. Dunbar.
Cooperative Stores in New England. Edward W. Bemis.

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Asia Minor Rediscovered.
Unpublished Letters of George Canning.
The Annals of Banff.
Henri Taine.
Job and the "Faust."
The South African Committee.
The Crisis in the East.

Rosary Magazine.—New York. August.

The American Congregation of St. Catharine de Ricci.—II.
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A Week on the Isles of Arran. Laura Grey.
A Royal Tertiary. Countess de Courson.
Reminiscence of Prof. George E. Hardy. J. A. Mooney.

The Rosary and the Holy Eucharist. J. M. L. Monsabre.
Our Lady of the Sacred Heart. C. O'Mahony.
Art in Seville. Joseph Selinger.

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Height and Distance from: ea After-riding Climate.
Health and Economics. F. J. Van Voorhis.
Scarlet Fever and Sanitation. N. D. Cox.
Causes and Prevention of Water Fermentation. Samuel McElroy.

Some Conditions of Longevity.
Malodorous Water and Organisms. A. N. Bell.

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Alexander Pope. John A. Black.
Impressions of Scotland. Robert S. Cassie.
Brig o' Balgownie, Aberdeen. W. Stuart Fielding.
An Appreciation of the Writings of S. R. Crockett. Charles Aitken.
Kirk Discipline in the Sixteenth Century. C. Haye Sharp.

The Stenographer.—Philadelphia. August.

Repetition in Speed Practice.
Law Reporting. H. W. Thorne.

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The Cows That Ants Milk. Grant Allen.
Personal Relics of the Queen.—II. William G. Fitzgerald.
Portraits of Celebrities at Different Times of Their Lives.
Queer Competitions. Framley Steelcroft.
How Buildings Are Moved. James W. Smith.
Side-Shows.—V. William G. Fitzgerald.
From Behind the Speaker's Chair.—XXXVIII. H. W. Lucy.

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The Heavenly Choir of Perugia. Katharine S. Macquoid.
A Sunday at St. Paul's.
An Irish Funeral. Frederick Langbridge.
Some Modern Women and Their Work. M. Margaret Hammond.

Temple Bar.—London. August.

The Campaign of Roucoux. Frederick Dixon.
Autumn Days in Islay.
Gottfried Herder; the Sponsor of Folk-Song. Theodora Nunn.
Beethoven's Last Days. Alice Quarry.

United Service Magazine.—London. August.

The Army of Spain; Its Present Qualities and Modern Value.
Egypt, France, and England. J. Stuart Horner.
Ships, Colonies, Commerce. D. P. Heatley.
The Instruction of Our Soldiers to Shoot Under Conditions of Active Service.
The Volunteer Force. Capt. H. L. Griffin.
Armored Trains. H. G. Archer.
Invasions of Ireland. Lieut. C. Holmes Wilson.
Assaulting Columns. "Vinculum."
The Waziri Expedition.

Westminster Review.—London. August.

Plain Speaking About Lunacy. W. J. Corbet.
The History of the Week as a Guide to Prehistoric Chronology.
Sir William Lockhart. R. M. Lockhart.
The Diary of a Chief Justice. John Scott. N. W. Sibley.
Evolution of Agriculture. R. Hedger Wallace.
Responsibility of Parents for Failure of Modern Education. W. K. Hill.
Science and the Rights of Women. H. E. Harvey.
The Salisbury Treatment in England.

Wilson's Photographic Magazine.—New York. August.

Exposure-Meters and Other Things. W. T. Wilkinson.
The Vandyke Style in Portraiture. G. G. Rockwood.
The Improvement of Negatives. L. Helitzski.
Papers for Professional Photographers. J. A. Tennant.
Sulphites and Their Use. G. E. Brown.
The National Convention at Celoron.

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Economic Theories Explaining Increase of Public Expenditure in Europe. G. Flamingo.
The New Administration in Canada. Edward Porritt.
The Sociétés de Secours Mutuels of France. W. F. Willoughby.
Recent Economic and Social Legislation in the United States. F. J. Stimson.

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Vasco da Gama and the Sea Route to the East Indies. T. Schott.
July 10.
Brussels. H. G. von Jostenode.
July 17.
The Shell-Fisheries of Heligoland.
July 24.
Wilhelm Bauer. L. Witte.
Deutscher Hausschatz.—Regensburg. Heft 14.
The Grande Chartreuse. Continued. J. Odenthal.
Dr. Nansen's Expedition. H. Kerner.
The Ear and Its Diseases. J. Schuh.
Deutsche Revue.—Stuttgart.
July.
The Bunsen Family Archives.
The Viennese Court, 1791-92. Count Paul Greppi.
Habit. Prof. A. Heger.
My Journals. Continued. Dr. von Schulte.

- Archduke John of Austria on Greece. A. Schlossar.
Ernst Curtius. Continued. H. Telzer.
Reminiscences. R. von Gottschall.
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New Letters of Bismarck. H. von Poschinger.
New Life of Heinrich Heine, from His Unpublished Letters.
Bayreuth and the Critics. H. S. Chamberlain.
Atavism and Evolution. Caesar Lombroso.
Adelalé Ristori. Leone Fortis.
Travels and Conversations with Ernst Curtius. H. Gelzer.
Deutsche Rundschau.—Berlin. July.
The Inner Man at the End of the Nineteenth Century. R. Eucken.
Heine in Unpublished Letters. Concluded. E. Elster.
California. A. Wirth.
Brahms in Italy. J. V. Wildmann.
Music in Berlin. C. Krebs.
Queen Victoria's Jubilee.
Vom Fels zum Meer.—Stuttgart. Heft 22.
Lake Constance. K. von Arx.
Eugen Bracht.

THE FRENCH MAGAZINES.

- Bibliothèque Universelle.—Lausanne.
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The Poetry of Heine and Its Influence in France. Edouard Rod.
The Emperor Nicolas II. and His Travels in the East. M. Helix.
The Proposed Government Ownership of Swiss Railways. Continued.
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Edouard Greig. Louis Moireau.
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Old Memories. Duchess of Fitz-James.
Napoleon and Wellington. General Dragomirof.
A Dialogue on Art and Science. P. Richer.
Fanaticism in Turkey. J. Denais.
Letters on Foreign Politics. Mme. Juliette Adam.
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The Inventions of 1814-1815. E. Muntz.
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Dialogues on Art and Science. P. Richer.
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Presidential Address to the Société d'Economie Sociale. H. Valleroux.
Equality of Conditions. A. Desjardins.
The Société d'Economie Sociale and the Peace Unions in 1896-97.
July 16.
The Rights of the Testator in Countries Outside France.
The French Mercantile Marine. E. Rostand.
The Regulation of Corporations in Austria. V. Brants.
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Leo XIII. and Prince Bismarck. E. Lefebvre de Behaine.
Public Opinion and the Athenian Orators. Paul Girard.
The Seine Assizes. Jean Cruppi.
A Frenchwoman in the Ladak. Mme. Isabelle Massieu.
Peter the Great and His Latest Biographer. M. G. Valbert.
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The Revolt of the Philippines and Spanish Policy. Charles Benoist.
Essays on Pathological Literature: E. A. Poe. Arvède Barine.

- The Ruins of Palmyra and Their Explorer. Eugène Guillaume.
Competition and Loss of Work. Paul d'Estournelles de Constant.
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Social Transformations of Contemporary Russia. A. Leroy-Beaulieu.
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Berryer According to His Latest Historians. V. Du Bled.
The Scotch Universities. G. Bonet-Maury.
The Years of Retirement of Prince Bismarck. M. G. Valbert.
Revue de Droit Public.—Paris. June.
The Pecuniary Responsibility of Ministers in France. C. Roussel.
The State and the Railways in France. L. Walras.
Hierarchical Control in Administrative Matters. E. H. Perreau.
Revue Generale.—Brussels. July.
Belgian Art. Ernest Périer.
Islamism. A. Castelein.
The Reorganization of the Belgian Civic Guard. A. de Neef.
Travels in Rhodesia. Concluded. A. Bordeaux.
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Agricultural Syndicates and Small Proprietors. R. Henry.
The Elections in Austria-Hungary. Lefèvre Pontalis.
Mutual Aid Societies in France. A. Drake.
The Central Mayoralty of Paris. A. Combarieu.
French Colonial Questions. G. Demartial.
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AP.	American Amateur Photographer.	D.	Dial.	Mus.	Musie.
ACQ.	American Catholic Quarterly Review.	DR.	Dublin Review.	NatM.	National Magazine.
AHReg.	American Historical Register.	ER.	Edinburgh Review.	NatR.	National Review.
AHR.	American Historical Review.	Ed.	Education.	NEM.	New England Magazine.
AMC.	American Magazine of Civics.	EdRL.	Educational Review. (London)	NewR.	New Review.
AAPS.	Annals of the Am. Academy of Political Science.	EdRNY.	Educational Review. (New York.)	NW.	New World.
AJS.	American Journal of Sociology	EngM.	Engineering Magazine.	NC.	Nineteenth Century.
AMon.	American Monthly.	EI.	English Illustrated Magazine.	NAR.	North American Review.
AMRR.	American Monthly Review of Reviews.	FR.	Fortnightly Review.	OC.	Open Court.
APS.	Appleton's Popular Science Monthly.	F.	Forum.	O.	Outing.
ARec.	Architectural Record.	FrL.	Frank Leslie's Monthly.	Out.	Outlook.
A.	Arena.	FreeR.	Free Review.	OM.	Overland Monthly.
AA.	Art Amateur.	GM.	Gentleman's Magazine.	PMM.	Pall Mall Magazine.
AI.	Art Interchange.	G.	Godey's.	PREV.	Philosophical Review.
Ata.	Atalanta.	GBag.	Green Bag.	PSQ.	Political Science Quarterly.
AM.	Atlantic Monthly.	GMag.	Gunter's Magazine.	PA.	Photo-American.
BA.	Bachelor of Arts.	Harp.	Harper's Magazine.	PB.	Photo-Beacon.
Bad.	Badminton Magazine.	HomR.	Homiletic Review.	PT.	Photographic Times.
BankL.	Bankers' Magazine. (London.)	Int.	Intelligence.	PL.	Poet-Lore.
BankNY.	Bankers' Magazine. (New York.)	IJE.	Internat'l Journal of Ethics.	PRR.	Presbyterian and Reformed Review.
BW.	Biblical World.	JAES.	Journal of the Ass'n of Engineering Societies.	PQ.	Presbyterian Quarterly.
Bsac.	Bibliotheca Sacra.	JMSI.	Journal of the Military Service Institution.	QJ Econ.	Quarterly Journal of Economics.
Black.	Blackwood's Magazine.	JPEcon.	Journal of Political Economy.	QR.	Quarterly Review.
BTJ.	Board of Trade Journal.	K.	Knowledge.	R.	Rosary.
Bkman.	Bookman. (New York.)	LHJ.	Ladies' Home Journal.	San.	Sanitarian.
CanM.	Canadian Magazine.	LH.	Leisure Hour.	SRev.	School Review.
CFM.	Cassell's Family Magazine.	Lipp.	Lippincott's Magazine.	Scots.	Scots Magazine.
CasM.	Cassier's Magazine.	Long.	Longman's Magazine.	Scrib.	Scribner's Magazine.
CW.	Catholic World.	LQ.	London Quarterly Review.	Sten.	Stenographer.
CM.	Century Magazine.	LuthQ.	Lutheran Quarterly.	Str.	Strand Magazine.
CJ.	Chambers's Journal.	McCl.	McClure's Magazine.	SJ.	Students' Journal.
CRev.	Charities Review.	Mac.	Macmillan's Magazine.	SunH.	Sunday at Home.
Chaut.	Chautauquan.	Men.	Menorah Monthly.	SunM.	Sunday Magazine.
CR.	Contemporary Review.	MR.	Methodist Review.	TB.	Temple Bar.
C.	Cornhill.	MidM.	Midland Monthly.	US.	United Service.
Cosmop.	Cosmopolis.	Mish.	Missionary Herald.	USM.	United Service Magazine.
Cos.	Cosmopolitan.	MisR.	Missionary Review of World.	WR.	Westminster Review.
Dem.	Demorest's Family Magazine.	Mon.	Monist.	WPM.	Wilson's Photographic Magazine.
		M.	Month.	YR.	Yale Review.
		MI.	Monthly Illustrator.		
		MM.	Munsey's Magazine.		

[It has been found necessary to restrict this index to periodicals published in the English language. All the articles in the leading reviews are indexed, but only the more important articles in the other magazines.]

The World of Thrift and Money Matters.

Three-Cent Street-Car Fares.—Indianapolis has had a difficult time in enforcing the law of the last Legislature fixing the rate of street-railroad fares at three cents in cities of one hundred thousand or more. The Citizens' Street Railroad contested the constitutionality of the act and claimed that its charter gave it the right to charge five cents. The United States Circuit Court granted an injunction restraining the city from enforcing the three-cent rate, but the Supreme Court of the State has decided in favor of the act. Judge Showalter declared that the charter gave no rights in the matter of rates which were not legally abrogated by the action of the Legislature.

Preferred Stock vs. Mortgage Bonds.—The recent failure of the Johns Hopkins University, through its counsel, to establish its position as a preferred creditor among all the creditors of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad involves some peculiar questions of equity. The Johns Hopkins University owns a million or so of dollars of preferred stock in the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad. At present the railroad cannot earn enough money to pay interest on its mortgage indebtedness and on its stock or any part of its stock at the same time. The university had made a petition before the United States Circuit Court in Maryland to compel the payment of interest on their first preferred stock out of the gross profits of the railroad company, that is, to make their lien on the road's profits as holders of preferred stock a prior claim to the claim of the bondholders. Of course the right of bondholders to their interest is always considered a first lien on the earnings of an enterprise, but the Johns Hopkins claimed peculiar circumstances in its own case. The chief of these circumstances was that this preferred stock now held by the university was originally owned by the State of Maryland. It was part of the original subscription of the State, for the payment of which said bonds were sold. Now, the act authorizing the subscription attached certain conditions to the payment of interest on the preferred stock, among which was a section guaranteeing to the State of Maryland,

after the expiration of three years from the payment by the State of each of the installments on the stock hereby authorized to be made to the stock of said company, the payment from that time out of the profits of the work of 6 per cent., payable semi-annually . . . until the clear annual profits of said railroad shall be more than sufficient to discharge the interest which it shall be liable so to pay to the State of Maryland and shall be adequate to a dividend of 6 per cent. per annum among its stockholders, and thereafter the State shall, in reference to the stock so subscribed for and on so much thereof as the State may hold, be entitled to have and receive a perpetual dividend of 6 per cent. per annum out of the profits of the work as declared from time to time, and no more, and all and so much of such annual profits as shall exceed 6 per cent. shall be distributed to the other stockholders according to their several interests in the said company.

The State held nearly three million dollars of stock, and has at various times sold nearly all of this. All the certificates in these sales provide that the owner of the stock was entitled to a "perpetual dividend of 6 per cent. per annum, and no more, upon the said shares, payable out of the gross profits." It was on the strength of this act and these certificates that the Johns Hopkins based its contention—a contention which has much significance as being one of the few attempts ever made to claim a lien prior to the mortgage lien. Judges Goff and Morris, of the Circuit Court, decided against the university, on the general ground that the language of the act would have been far more specific if it had intended such a unique departure from the established relation between stock and bond holders; in other words, they were unwilling to make such a radical departure from the precedent from mere implication. The legal and financial aspects of the case are too abstruse and peculiar for a layman to have any distinctive opinion in opposition to the courts, but as a matter of sentiment there will be thousands of people who regret this further obstruction of the Johns Hopkins'

fight to regain the lost income. There is a chance as yet, however, as the case is to be carried to the Supreme Court, and there are various circumstances which suggest the possibility of a reversal of the decision.

Death of an Insurance Company.—As this number goes to press the news comes of the dissolution of the Massachusetts Benefit Life Insurance Company. The event was precipitated by the heavy assessments called for. Calling for a heavy assessment under the circumstances of this company was in effect saying that policyholders had been getting their insurance too cheaply and that now they must make up for the previous ultra-cheapness. It is truly the business of the company to make the rate neither too low nor too high; certainly a man taking out a policy is not apt to insist on a higher and more prudent rate. Mr. Litchfield, the chief organizer and administrator of the Massachusetts Benefit Life, also made the mistake of postponing the call for assessments until there was a necessity for a very heavy tax.

Bloated Bondholders and the Business Depression.—Some very interesting calculations have been put forth by Mr. J. J. Valentine, of Wells, Fargo & Co., in refutation of the widely prevalent idea that "the vast advantages of associated capital have not been disturbed by the long depression in business." As this is the favorite theme of political and social agitators, some of Mr. Valentine's citations are worth reprinting. For example, a few years ago Union Pacific stock sold at \$125 and higher per share, and paid 6 per cent. dividends; it is now quoted at \$7 per share, with no possibility of dividends. Santa Fé stock, which a few years ago sold at \$115 per share and paid 7 per cent. dividends, is now being heavily assessed to make up a deficit and has a purely nominal value. For the fiscal year of 1895, the group of railroad lines operating in the States west of the Rocky Mountains, with a stock capitalization of \$578,000,000, paid no interest on 97 per cent. of that sum. The group of lines operating in Colorado, Kansas, Oklahoma, Missouri and Arkansas paid no interest on \$487,000,000 that year (92 per cent. of the whole capitalization), and the lines in Texas, Louisiana, and northern Mexico, with a capitalization of \$217,000,000, paid no interest on 99 per cent. of that sum. Comparing the market prices of certain stocks in July, 1881, and June, 1897, affords the following striking contrasts: Baltimore & Ohio declined from \$200 to \$10, Central Pacific from \$100 to \$9, Denver & Rio Grande from \$111 to \$39, Erie from \$47 to \$13, Missouri Pacific from \$113 to \$17, New York Central from \$147 to \$100, Northern

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Pacific from \$45 to \$13, Oregon Navigation from \$170 to \$17, Reading from \$60 to \$20, Texas Pacific from \$68 to \$9, Union Pacific from \$132 to \$7, and Wabash from \$60 to \$6. In the past five years 1,100 banks have failed, and even in the Atlantic States savings-bank dividends to depositors have fallen, in twenty-five years, from 6 per cent. to 3½ per cent., while the average net earnings to capital and surplus of national banks have fallen from very nearly 12 per cent. in 1870 to 5 per cent. at the present time. Summing up, Mr. Valentine asks how, in the face of these and other interesting tabulations which he makes, it can be still held that the holders of \$25,000,000 of bonds, debenture certificates, and preferred and common stock of 50,000 miles of railroads in the hands of receivers in this country within the past five years, and other classes of securities whose earnings have likewise been cut down, "have experienced no hardships."